

JUNIOR ENGLISH COURSE

Book II

P·H·DEFFENDALL



Class LB 1631

Book J 3

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BOOK TWO

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BY
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PRINCIPAL OF THE BLAIR SCHOOL
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FOREWORD

THIS course in English is prepared to meet the demand for a new and more effective solution of the pressing problems of oral and written speech in junior high schools, and to bridge the chasm between the elementary and high schools where junior high schools have not been organized. It follows the most helpful suggestions presented in the *Reorganization of English in the Secondary Schools*, Bulletin, 1917, No. 2, National Bureau of Education, and the recent investigations of pupils' errors, particularly the study by Professor Charters and Miss Miller, and the more recent one by the Principals' Committee of Allegheny county, Pennsylvania.

The author has had much experience as a teacher and supervisor in elementary schools, as an administrator and teacher in Ben Blewett Junior High, as a teacher in Soldan Senior High, and as a Supervisor of English in the Continuation Schools of St. Louis. This wide experience gives him such knowledge of the whole field of English as to qualify him for preparing such a course both as to content and method.

Most of the material has been carefully tried out in class work and found successful. Almost all the model themes are taken directly from the work of pupils, particularly from the best. It is undoubtedly true that these can be better comprehended

and more easily imitated than illustrations from Milton or Addison.

In the preparation of this course the author is guided by two well defined and accepted ideals in present-day education — the project method and the socialized-classroom procedure. The projects are not imposed; neither are they outlines nor class exercises labeled projects. They possess all the characteristics of the real project that can be put into a book that is to be used by the children as a text.

In spirit we believe they possess the elements — purposing, planning, executing, and judging — as defined by Dr. Kilpatrick, and in scope they meet the standard as given by Dr. Charles A. McMurry. Situations based upon life issues are created through class discussions; out of these a probable life problem springs and provides the stimulant for a project. Should some other problem than that given in the text arise, the procedure given in the text provides an excellent type for the unexpected project. Each project offers repeated opportunity for the pupil to exercise his power to purpose, plan, execute and judge. The free and natural movement of project work functions in the socialized-classroom method. Plenty of opportunity is given for the socialized recitation through committee work, club organization, voting, programs, etc.

The work in composition is treated under thirty projects — ten for each grade. These projects involve life issues pertaining to civic interests, such as “Conducting a Health Campaign”, “Forming a Civics Club”, etc.; those involving vocational interest, as “Making a Study of an Occupation”,

etc.; those pertaining to school activities, as "The School Paper", etc.; and those that develop pride in good English and correct expression, as "Holding a Public Debate."

A simple treatment of grammar and good usage is given in the second section of each chapter. A good deal of space is given to the treatment of the sentence as a basis for written composition and good usage, but in order to prevent strained correlation, grammar is not presented as an outgrowth. The course contains the material that is still alive and helpful. Difficult and unusual constructions have everywhere been omitted, since many difficulties in construction arise from an effort to explain idioms of speech according to the rules of formal grammar. This course would pass over such constructions lightly, explaining them merely as idioms.

For the most part, sentences used in the exercises are such as were actually found in the speech and writing of pupils. Punctuation is treated along with the study of the sentence wherever the need arises, and the subject is made so easy, through few rules and many illustrations and explanations, that every boy and girl should be able to master the subject thoroughly. Wherever grammatical nomenclature is needed, that recommended by the Joint Committee of the National Education Association is used.

Much space is devoted to good usage. This should please those who believe that grammar should be functional and that it should be shorn of its needless classifications. We have gone directly to the work of the children to find their errors. We have found them. Guess-work, therefore, has been carefully avoided. Many errors of the children are

easy to correct, and the number is not great, but the need for good-usage drills is fully recognized.

Superintendents, supervisors, and teachers who are endeavoring to vitalize curricula through the project method and socialized-classroom activity will find this English course constructed upon these ideals.

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SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

THE plan of this course is intended to be both simple and logical. There are two sections in each chapter — the first presenting the project and the second the practical grammar. There are thirty projects, ten for each grade, and the course is divided into three parts — Part One for the seventh grade, Part Two for the eighth, and Part Three for the ninth.

The work of each chapter, together with such literary selections as may be chosen for study, should require three or four weeks for completion. If desirable, however, you may expand the work of the projects by having your pupils plan additional exercises. You may even lead your pupils to suggest and undertake new projects similar to those given in the book.

The suggestions given under the heading *Planning the Work* are intended mainly to serve as a guide for the pupils. You should see to it, therefore, that every boy and girl exercises initiative in planning.

To secure the best results, make use of the socialized recitation by putting into practice class organization, committee work, programs, debates, voting, etc.

Near the end of the work in each grade there is a reading project designed to take care of the problem of supplementary reading. It need not be deferred

to the close of the year, however; you may take it up much earlier, if you wish to do so.

No attempt has been made to treat grammar as an outgrowth of the project, as this would often result in a strained correlation. The work should be taken up in the order given, so as to serve as a foundation for correct speaking and writing.

P. H. DEFFENDALL

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PROJECTS

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ENGLISH FOR THE NINTH GRADE

CHAPTER ONE

I. ORGANIZING AN ENGLISH CLUB

As you perhaps have already learned, there are certain very definite advantages in organizing the class as a club. First, it affords you an opportunity to practice public speaking and parliamentary law and to acquire the habit of courtesy toward others. Second, it furnishes the opportunity to develop initiative and the ability for leadership through speaking and acting for the club in various ways. Third, it develops pride in correct expression and gives pleasure in your English work. Indeed there are many ways in which such an organization can help you. You should, therefore, find it both interesting and profitable to undertake the organization of an English club as a definite project.

PROJECT I. ORGANIZING AN ENGLISH CLUB

Planning the Work. In order that you may learn as much parliamentary usage as possible, you should follow the plan generally used, which is as follows: A temporary organization should be formed and a committee appointed to write a constitution. Then the constitution should be discussed, each article separately, and adopted.

Committees should be appointed to investigate and report on the following:

1. Constitutions of local clubs and societies
2. Parliamentary rules (different kinds of motions, how to state them, when in order, and whether each is debatable or amendable)

In the work of adopting your constitution you should find abundant opportunity for speaking and for stating the different kinds of motions. Of course you should not make the work too difficult. Make no motions that do not arise from the business before your club.

In order that you may secure a more definite idea of the kind of constitution you should plan, the following work of a junior high school class is given:

CONSTITUTION OF THE WEBSTER ENGLISH CLUB

Article I. Name

This organization shall be called the *Webster English Club*.

Article II. Purpose

The purpose of the club shall be to practice public speaking and parliamentary law and to undertake such English projects as the teacher may approve.

Article III. Membership

The membership shall include all pupils in Mr. Gray's Ninth-grade English Class.

Article IV. Officers

Sec. 1. The officers of the club shall be president, vice-president, and secretary.

Sec. 2. They shall be elected by ballot for a term of one month. An election shall be held during the third week of each month, and the president shall conduct it.

Sec. 3. It shall be the duty of the president to conduct the business of the club and preside at its meetings. He may, however, call on the vice-president or any other member to preside. In the absence of the president, the vice-president shall preside. The secretary shall keep a record of all meetings and call the roll.

Article V. Amendments

All amendments to this constitution must be submitted in writing at least one week before adoption and must receive a two-thirds vote.

By-Laws

Article I

Sec. 1. The order of business shall be as follows: call to order, roll call, minutes, program, reports of committees, old business, new business.

Sec. 2. Parliamentary rules such as may be found in Roberts' *Rules of Order* shall be used in conducting meetings.

Sec. 3. All programs shall be determined by a program committee, by the teacher, or by vote of the club. In all cases the approval of the teacher must be secured.

Sec. 4. The program committee shall be appointed by the president.

Article II

The by-laws may be amended in the same manner as provided for the constitution.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to some club or other organization in your city or town asking for a copy of its constitution. Tell about the project your class has undertaken and explain why you are making the request.

Making a Temporary Organization. Until the class has adopted a constitution, it can have no permanent officers. The teacher may name some pupil to take charge of the meeting or may do so him-

self. Nominations for temporary chairman will then be in order, and a vote will be taken. The person thus elected temporary chairman will take charge. He will appoint a temporary secretary or ask the class to elect one. He will next announce that a motion to organize an English club is in order. Some pupil should then arise and make the motion — thus: “ Mr. Chairman, I move that we organize an English club.” Before there can be any discussion, another pupil must second the motion — thus: “ Mr. Chairman, I second the motion.” The chairman should then say: “ It has been moved and seconded that we organize an English club. Is there any discussion? ” If there is no discussion a vote is taken at once.

The chairman should next appoint a committee to prepare a constitution similar to the one given above. The members should begin work at once and be ready to report within two or three days. The chairman should also appoint another committee to investigate and report on parliamentary rules. The members should find out all they can about the following:

1. Principal motions — those that introduce business before the club
2. Privileged motions — those that concern the welfare and program of the club. These include adjournment, recess, time for next meeting, orders of the day, and question of privilege.
3. Incidental motions — those that arise out of other motions. These include point of order, appeal, objection, withdrawal of motion, and suspension of the rules.
4. Subsidiary motions — those that change or amend motions that have already been made. These include amend, refer to a committee, postpone, previous question, and lay on the table.

Talk to the Class. In order that you may help the committee that is preparing your constitution, you should be ready to make suggestions. Prepare a two-minute talk covering the following points:

1. A suitable name for the club
2. Things that should be stated in the constitution
3. Things that should be stated in the by-laws

Report of the Committee on Parliamentary Rules. The committee should tell the club how to make the following motions, when each is in order, and whether debatable or amendable:

1. Motion to adjourn
2. Orders of the day
3. Appeal
4. Point of order
5. Withdrawal of motion
6. Lay on the table
7. Postpone
8. Refer to a committee
9. Motion to amend

Report of the Constitutional Committee. The chairman of the committee will read the proposed constitution to the class. Then one by one the articles should be reread, discussed, and adopted. For example, the chairman will read Article I and some one will rise and say: "Mr. Chairman, I move that we adopt Article I", and another will second the motion. You may now discuss the merits of the article, and perhaps you will wish to amend it. If so, you should rise and say: "Mr. Chairman, I move to amend Article I by striking out or inserting —" The proposed amendment should then be submitted to a vote. With the amendment out of the way, the original article should now be adopted or rejected. This process should be

followed until the constitution and by-laws have been adopted.

Written English. Copy the constitution in your notebook. Be careful to capitalize, punctuate, and paragraph the work correctly.

Talk to the English Club. The constitution having been adopted, you are now ready to elect officers. Prepare a nominating speech for the person whom you wish to be chosen as president. State the candidate's qualifications and what you expect him to do if elected. Make an appeal for votes. Part of the class should prepare speeches nominating some person for vice-president or secretary. When the speeches have been made, the vote should be taken.

Written English. Make a booklet of parliamentary rules. Put in the correct wording for the different kinds of motions. Add the important facts about each — for example, when in order and whether debatable or amendable.

Talk to the English Club. Choose an interesting current event from the newspapers or magazines and re-tell it in your own words. If you prefer, tell the club about some man prominently before the public and state the reason for his popularity.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to another school in your city, or in some other city or community, asking for information about their English club or other organizations in the school.

II. AGREEMENT

Agreement of Subject and Verb. The following rules for the agreement of the subject and verb should be carefully learned:

The general rule is that a verb must agree with its subject in number and person. This means that in most cases a singular subject requires a singular verb. There are, however, a few cases in which the rule does not seem to apply. Fortunately the number is not great, and the few exceptions can be easily learned.

1. When a subject denotes a part and is followed by the preposition *of*, the verb should agree with the substantive following *of* — thus: “Four-fifths of the *farm* is level land.” Other words following the same rule are *abundance*, *plenty*, *variety*, *rest*, and *number* (except when *number* is preceded by *the*, when it is always singular).

The following sentences are correctly written:

1. One-third of the *men* were laborers.
2. An abundance of *peaches* were raised last year.
3. Plenty of *beds* were furnished for the soldiers.
4. The rest of the *oranges* were kept for future use.
5. Two-thirds of Brown's *estate* was sold.
6. *The number* of pupils in the class was twenty-five.
7. A number of *horses* were sold in St. Louis.

2. Sometimes a subject apparently plural really refers to one thing and therefore takes a singular verb — thus:

1. Twenty-five dollars *is* a small sum of money.
2. Sixty minutes *makes* an hour.

However, a leading magazine recently printed the following heading: “What Sixty Years in Business *Have Taught Us*.”

3. Many nouns that look like plurals generally take singular verbs. Dr. Hall has found that certain nouns ending in *ics* — such as *mathematics*, *ethics*,

physics, optics — tend to take the singular. He adds, however, that *athletics* and *politics* seem to prefer the plural. *News* and *means* are almost always considered singular and so take singular verbs. The following sentences illustrate the use of these subjects:

1. The *news* of the accident *was* telegraphed to Chicago.
2. There *is* no *means* of defeating the enemy this year.
3. *Ethics* *is* an interesting study.
4. The general's *politics* *are* unknown. (Either singular or plural.)
5. *Track athletics* *are* interesting.

4. Two singular nouns or pronouns connected by *and* or *both . . . and* make up a plural subject.

1. John and George *are* brothers.
2. The gentleman from California and his son *have* purchased the farm.
3. Both John and I *were* at the theater yesterday.
4. *Were* you and George at the concert to-day? (Not *was you and George*.)

The rule does not apply, however, in cases where both nouns refer to the same person or thing — thus:

1. The secretary and treasurer *is* an honest man. (One man holds both offices.)
2. Bread and butter *is* good food.

5. The words *a, an, each, every, either, neither, either . . . or, neither . . . nor*, and *or* make the subject with which they are used singular — thus:

1. Each boy and girl *was* given a pencil.
2. Either you or John *is* mistaken.

6. Often one subject is joined to another by *with, in addition to, as well as*, and the like. In such cases

the verb should agree with the first. The added expressions should always be set off by commas. Observe the agreement and punctuation in the following sentences :

1. Time, as well as money, *is required* to insure success.
2. The fifth regiment, in addition to three others, *has been sent* to the front.
3. The miner, with his family, *is held* by the police.
4. He, along with others, *is suspected* of the crime.

7. Sometimes the presence of a negative in two connected subjects causes difficulty. In all such cases make sure that the verb agrees with the one unaffected by the negative. Such negative expressions should always be set off by commas. Note carefully the agreement and punctuation in the following sentences :

1. The old gentleman, but not his sons, *was shown* great courtesy.
2. The soldiers, and not the tramp, *were fed*.

8. A collective noun may take either a singular or plural verb, depending on the way in which the speaker or writer views the collection. A collective noun takes a singular verb when the collection is considered as a whole — for example, “The committee has reported the bill.” It takes a plural verb when the individuals in the collection are thought of — for example, “The committee *were divided* in their opinions about the matter.”

Agreement in Person. Perhaps there is more of the inflection of person in the verb *be* than in any other. For this reason it would be well to think its forms through very carefully. Aside from the personal pronouns almost all subjects are in the

third person and so give little difficulty. When, however, the members of a compound subject are connected by such expressions as *or*, *either . . . or*, and *neither . . . nor*, and are in different persons, some confusion arises. The rule is as follows: When the words making up such a compound subject differ in person, the verb should agree with the one nearest it — thus:

1. Neither she nor I *am* prepared to speak.
2. Either John or you *are* mistaken.

Again, by courtesy, a first person subject should be placed last in a series — thus, “John, James, and I *are* doing the work.”

Agreement of the Verb with a Relative Pronoun as Subject. You have learned that a pronoun is in the same number as its antecedent. Now, you must not forget that this is true for the relative pronouns as well as for the personal pronouns. In the following sentences, *who*, *which*, and *that* are singular subjects:

1. A man *who works* will succeed.
2. A dog *which barks* is a good watch dog.
3. A boy *that plays* will get plenty of exercise.

In the following sentences *who*, *which*, and *that* are plural:

1. Men *who work* will succeed.
2. Dogs *which bark* are good watch dogs.
3. Boys *that play* will get plenty of exercise.

In a relative clause the verb must also agree with the antecedent of its pronoun subject in person.

This is especially important in the case of the verb *be* — thus :

1. *I who am* your servant will do what you request.
2. *He who is* my friend will help me.
3. The prospect of success seemed poor to me, who *was*, and still *am*, very much interested in the adventure.
4. I will assist *you that need* it most.
5. *They who have* cars should be interested in good roads.

Sometimes it requires careful thought to determine just what the antecedent of the relative is. Notice the following :

1. He is one of those men *who love* painting and sculpture.
2. I am one of those *who favor* the strict enforcement of the law.
3. He has made a number of statements *that seem* to me to be absurd.

In the first sentence the antecedent of *who* is *men* and not *one*; therefore the verb is plural. In the second the antecedent of *who* is *those* and not *one*. In the last sentence the antecedent of *that* is *statements* and not *number*.

Exercise 1

The following sentences involve the study of person, number, tense, agreement, and, in fact, all the properties and uses of verbs. Choose the correct form and give a reason for your choice.

1. The Spartans were (learned, taught) to fight.
2. I have told about the adventures that he has (went, gone) through.
3. She (got, took) me away from the burning building.
4. When he had (did, done) this several times, he left the boat.
5. She (give, gave) us chairs.
6. I (come, came) to a hill.

7. She (got to, began) to act foolish.
8. We (hollered, shouted) to him.
9. Then we were (showed, shown) to our tent by the guide.
10. We saw many seals (laying, lying) around on the shore.
11. The jeweler (fixed, repaired) the clock.
12. There (was, were) many trees in the field.
13. Achilles (slayed, slew) Hector before the walls of Troy.
14. His men (is, are) intoxicated.
15. If one (was, were) to visit Ireland, he would not know that the country had been at war.
16. The boy (stoled, stole) something from his father.
17. He (laid, lay) down in the stern and went to sleep.
18. There (was, were) only two ways to go home.
19. So he (lays, lies) down and goes to sleep.
20. Her hair (come, came) out very fast.
21. The man explained that the gun had (went off, gone off) accidentally.
22. The farmer (got mad, became angry) on account of our impudence.
23. Then the queen (come, came) and told him something.
24. The owner (bade, bid) us (set, sit) down.
25. If they could pass the examination, they (was, were) taken as members.
26. They would not (give in, yield) to our demands.
27. He (drunk, drank) the wine.
28. The man (has got, has) lungs as good as mine.
29. She did n't (except, accept) the invitation.
30. He went to bed with the dog (laying, lying) on his pillow.
31. He (bid, bade) his mother and wife good-by.
32. Last night she (lie, lay) down for only a few minutes.
33. They left the gold (lying, laying) under the tree.
34. The boy said he would tell his father and have the man (fired, discharged).
35. His ankle (got, was) sprained in a fall from the wagon.
36. He (got, came) to like her better later in the season.
37. The boy (has gone and enlisted, has enlisted) in the navy.
38. After she had (went, gone) to the car, she heard a noise.
39. We (seen, saw) that it was time for us to go.
40. He went over and (laid, lay) down on the bench.
41. We were as happy as they (was, were).
42. Should the farmers (fix up, repair) the roads themselves?

43. I understand that mathematics (are, is) an interesting study.
44. It (don't, does n't) matter what a man's religious beliefs are.
45. What (is, are) the news to-day?
46. Neither you nor I (are, am) able to determine what is right.
47. One of the various branches of labor unions (has, have) advanced radical ideas of reform.
48. (Did, Have) you bought your ticket yet?
49. I do not know what the ethics in this case (is, are).
50. Everybody (has, have) done (his, their) best to assist the president.
51. The bank (will loan, will lend) you the money.
52. Mr. Smith is one of those men who (are, is) always trying to help (his, their) neighbors.
53. The child asked if he (could, might) bring his toys.
54. There (has been, have been) so many disappointments connected with the undertaking that no one can appreciate the situation.
55. We should not (leave, let) the opportunity pass.
56. Her brother (taken, took) care of her.
57. When the bell was (rang, rung) the pupils came into the room.
58. I (run, ran) in the races last summer.
59. There (was, were) three big tanks near the station.
60. It was the most wonderful sight he had ever (saw, seen).
61. Years of hard labor (is, are) saved by this invention.
62. The governor, with several leading politicians, (has, have) formed a plan to retain power.
63. Everybody (sit, set, sat) very quietly in (his, their) seat.
64. She acted as if it (was, were) an accident.
65. A number of boys (is, are) suspected of the misdemeanor.
66. Mother and I (was, were) there to meet my sister.
67. Then we (eat, ate, et) dinner and played tennis.
68. The plank (begin, began, begun) to float when I threw it into the water.
69. I don't know whether he (was, were) drunk or not.
70. I (could of, could have) done more, had I not been tired.
71. The prisoner's guilt could not be (proved, proven).
72. Somebody (had ought, ought) to have helped the beggar.
73. Just as we entered, the curtain (raised, rose).

74. None of them (was, were) sleepy.
75. He was not badly hurt because he had n't (fell, fallen) very far.
76. Two-fifths of the farm (is, are) sand.
77. Two hundred dollars (was, were) too much to pay for the horse.
78. The pupil complained that physics (was, were) difficult.
79. The cat (could a went, could have gone) into the dining room.
80. The whole family (has, have) been eager to meet you.
81. I never did (leave, let) him push me under the water.
82. We (laid, lay) around till supper.
83. The golf links (is, are) very beautiful.
84. The jury (has, have) reached a verdict.
85. Many a man (do, does) not know what he should do for a life work.
86. If (he 'd a, he had) rolled over, the board (would a, would have) broken.
87. Why can't we (lay, lie) down?
88. George acted as if he (was, were) talking to somebody.
89. She (liked to broke, almost broke) her toe on the stone.
90. When he had got the information and (went, gone) upstairs, he began to think the matter over.
91. The fireman (busted, burst) in the door.
92. A fireman (run, ran) up and broke in the windows.
93. Uncle would (get, become) angry.
94. My sister (has got, has) a Japanese cook.
95. It (taken, took) us a long time to discover our mistake.
96. Earlier in the day I had (shook, shaken) hands with Henry.
97. I had just (sit, set) out in my machine, when the tire (busted, burst).
98. I (like to froze, almost froze) before I reached home.
99. They (give, gave) me a shotgun to carry.
100. When we (got it finished, had finished it) we felt very happy.
101. (Leave, Let) the dog alone.
102. There (ain't, are n't) any trees in the yard.
103. That is only one of a number of statements that (has, have) been made about the accident.
104. The policeman (come walkin', came walking) toward me.
105. Then we (run, ran) a very long (ways, distance).
106. I (seen, saw) something (movin', moving).

107. I've (forgot, forgotten) his name.
108. My (father's got, father has) a Cadillac.
109. The coat was badly (tore, teared, torn) by the dogs.
110. The goat acted as if he (was, were) going to kill me.
111. The clerk (set, sat) at the desk and called the roll.
112. The attorney has (showed, shown) his ability.
113. If taxation (was, were) just, men would not complain.
114. Each (have, has) (his, their) own work to do.
115. A big snake (come, came) out under my brother's foot.
116. Five were (laying, lying) on the grass.
117. I (will, shall) be glad to (except, accept) your kind invitation.
118. I promised to (learn, teach) Evelyn how to run the car.
119. None of us could tell how the window (got broke, was broken).
120. She was (seen, saw) just in time to avoid an accident.
121. If he (wouldn't be, were not) so stingy, I should like him.
122. I asked if I (could, might) go with him to Alton.
123. That day we (choosed, chose) sides and played ball.
124. (We've got, We have) a lap dog.
125. When we struck the curb, we (busted, burst) two tires.
126. There (is, are) now about three hundred men and women employed by the *Globe*.
127. If this country (was, were) attacked, we could defend ourselves.
128. When the signal was (blowed, blown, blewed) the players rushed upon one another.
129. When we heard the speech, we (got enthused, became enthusiastic) over the matter.
130. We all (knowed, knew) well enough how to swim.
131. After the girls had (ate, et, eaten) their lunch, they went home.
132. They found it (was, had been) settled before they came.
133. People (can't, may not) park automobiles in the street.
134. I shouldn't, I (don't believe, believe).
135. We told him to look many times (before he shot, before shooting).
136. When he had (choosed, chose, chosen) a clerk, he began the work.
137. The boy promised that he (should, would) come early.
138. (Shall, Will) you be glad to see your friend?

139. We (shall, will) not disappoint you if I can prevent it.
140. No one (could of, could have) done better than he.
141. The men on the farm (does n't, don't) have to enlist.
142. If you (had of, had) met me here at ten o'clock, we could have (gone, went) to the circus.
143. Any of the boys (seem, seems) well prepared to take the position.
144. The general had (risen, rose) at six o'clock and (went, gone) to the drill ground.
145. Every man (ought of, ought to have) done his duty.
146. My coat (sets, sits) well. (Clothiers and tailors say *sets*, but the standard authors generally say *sits*.)
147. Where (sits, sets) the wind?
148. The old man has (lain, laid) aside his timidity.
149. The boy (payed, paid) the bill.
150. The dog (wants in, wants to come in).
151. The prisoner (wants out, wants to get out) of jail.
152. When I (got there, reached the place) I found no one there.

CHAPTER TWO

I. A BETTER-SPEECH CAMPAIGN

Do you know that the ability to speak correct English is one of the most valuable accomplishments you can acquire? Perhaps you have not thought seriously of its importance. You are judged by your speech. There can be no doubt of this. If you speak faulty English, you are immediately classed as uneducated, and you cannot associate with educated people on terms of equality. Good English has not only a social but also a business value. A moment's reflection will convince you of this fact. Obviously, correct speech helps the salesman, the newspaper man, the clergyman, and the politician. And can you not see also that it will aid a person in any business?

In the beginning of your ninth-year work, would it not be worth while to investigate the kinds of errors you are making and set about correcting them? The problem before you is this: How may we find out our most frequent errors and in what ways may we work to form better-speech habits?

PROJECT II. CONDUCTING A BETTER-SPEECH CAMPAIGN

Planning the Work. If you have formed an English club, you should undertake this project through the new organization. You will, of course, feel free to

change or add to the plans suggested below. Naturally your first work will be to make a survey of the speech errors which you will hear in the classroom, on the school ground, at home, and elsewhere. Every member should take part in this work and at the end of a definite time, perhaps a week, bring in a list of errors. With the help of your teacher, work out an outline of headings under which to classify the mistakes. The following main headings may be used :

1. Slang expressions
2. Words mispronounced
3. Errors in grammar
4. Misspelled words (to be taken from board work and themes)

Before beginning the survey of errors, you will find it profitable to study carefully what is said about mispronounced words, slang expressions, and bad grammar in the following :

Many mistakes in the pronunciation of common words are due to the imperfect enunciation of final *d*'s, *t*'s, and *g*'s — for example, *subjec* for *subject*, *objec* for *object*, *foun* for *found*, *legen* for *legend*, and *runnin* for *running*. A great many errors also arise from failure to pronounce short vowels correctly — for example, *jist* for *just*, *sitch* for *such*, *wuz* for *was*, *ketch* for *catch*, and many others. Again, some mistakes are due to the addition of an unnecessary syllable — as, *attack-ted* for *attacked*, *drown-ded* for *drowned*, and *elum* for *elm*.

Pronounce the following words, making sure to sound final *d*'s, *t*'s, and *g*'s :

mind
kind

morning
evening

kept
wept

bind	walking	slept
hand	running	swept
land	talking	subject
wound	fighting	object
found	going	project
around	hurrying	accept
ground	lighting	except
descend	sitting	perfect

Pronounce the following words, making sure to sound short vowels correctly :

again	such	poem
any	just	can
get	together	lever
many	catch	granary
gather	for (not "fur")	process

Notice carefully the division into syllables and the position of the accent in the following words :

area	ā're a (Not "e ra.")
arithmetic	a rith'me tik (Not "rif me tik.")
athletics	ath let'iks (Not "ath e let iks.")
at all	(Not "a tall.")
column	kol'um (Not "kol yum.")
drowned	drownd (Not "drown-ded.")
elm	elm (Not "el um.")
geography	jē og'ra fi (Not "gog e fy.")
idea	i dē'a (Not "idee.")
iodine	i'ō dīn (Not "i dine.")
ruffian	ruf'yan (Not "ruf fy an.")
tremendous	tre men'dus (Not "tre men di us.")

Some words may be used either as a noun or a verb. Many of them are accented on the first syllable when used as a noun and on the last syllable when used as a verb. The following are the most common words of this kind. Learn to place the accent properly.

<i>Noun</i>	<i>Verb</i>
ac'cent	ac cent'
con'tent	con tent'
con'test	con test'
con'trast	con trast'
con'vict	con vict'
des'ert (dez ert)	de sert' (de zert)
en'vel ope	en vel'op
ex'port	ex port'
im'port	im port'
ob'ject	ob ject'
pres'ent	pre sent' (pre zent)
prod'uce (prod us)	pro duce'
reb'el	re bel'
rec'ord	re cord'
ref'use	re fuse'
sur'vey	sur vey'

Study carefully the pronunciation of the words in this list. Give special attention to any that you have been mispronouncing.

alias	ā'ly us	February	Feb'ru a ry
ally	ă lī'	governor	gov'er nor
allies	ă līz'	government	gov'ern ment
alternate (v.)	ăl'ter nāt	harass	hă'r'as
alternate (a.)	al ter'nāt	horizon	ho rī'zon
amateur	ăm'a ter	illustrate	il lus'trate
apparatus	ap'pa rā'tus	illustration	il'lus tra'tion
brooch	brōch	iodine	ī'o dīn (or dīn)
café	că fā'	mischievous	mis'chie vous
cartridge	car'tridge	negligée	nĕg'li zhā'
column	kōl'um	partner	part'ner
corps	kōr	pianist	pī'an ist
corps (plural)	kōrz	status	stay'tus
data	dāy'ta	tremendous	tre men'dus
encore	ong'kōr	vehement	ve'he ment

Study carefully the following list also :

admiralty	ăd'mi ral ty	aspirant	as pīr'ant
Arctic	ărk'tic	athlete	ath'leet

beneficiary	běn'e fǐ'shi a ry	granary	grăn'a ry
chauffeur	shō'fer'	genuine	gen'u in
deficit	dě'f'e sit	heinous	hā'nus
depot	dē'po	incomparable	in com'pa ra bl
eligible	ě'l'i gi bl	infinite	in'fī nīt'
élite	ā'leet'	narrator	na rā'tor
epitome	e pīt'o me	perfidious	per fīd'i us
financial	fī năn'cial	realty	rē'al ty
forehead	för'ed	reputable	rěp' u ta bl
formidable	for'mi da bl		

Slang consists of new words or phrases, not yet approved, and ordinary words or phrases in new and unauthorized senses. Some of these expressions are vigorous and emphatic, some are humorous; but a great many lack dignity. The best words and phrases will finally become good English, but most of them will soon be forgotten.

Most of the slang of the present day should be carefully avoided. This is true for several reasons. It not only lacks dignity, but much of it is really coarse and vulgar. It enters our speech to take the place of more specific words and expressions, thus limiting the scope of our vocabulary. Moreover, it should be avoided because its use readily becomes a habit which no one can afford to form.

Besides slang expressions, there are many other improprieties of speech, such as solecisms and barbarisms. If you will consult the dictionary, you will find that *disremember* and *enthuse* are not mentioned. If you have been using them, you should begin to find the proper words to use instead. The correct expressions are given below :

to disremember
to enthuse

not to remember
to show enthusiasm

The following sentences illustrate the use of correct expressions :

1. I *do not remember* the child's name. (Not "I *disremember*.")
2. The new officer *shows great enthusiasm* over his work. (Not "The new officer *enthuses* over his work.")
3. The sheriff was directed *to summon* the witnesses. (Not "*summonse* the witnesses.")

There are three nouns that are frequently misused as verbs — namely, *burglar*, *champion*, and *suspicion*. If you will consult the dictionary, you will find that they should not be so used. These mistakes are heard in such sentences as these :

1. The stranger *burglared* the store.
2. Mr. Bryan *championed* the cause of temperance.
3. The officer *suspicioned* the tramp committed the crime.

Of course the correct expressions are as follows :

1. The stranger *broke* into the store and robbed it.
2. Mr. Bryan *acted as the champion* of the temperance cause.
3. The officer *suspected* that the tramp had committed the crime.

Some words that have not been recognized in written English have been generally adopted in conversation. They are classed as colloquial in the dictionary. There are at least three in this group that should be carefully remembered — namely, *a combine*, *folks*, and *a wire*, meaning a message. It is better to use the word *folk* instead of *folks*. Other words of this kind not yet approved even as colloquial are as follows :

a defy	for <i>defiance</i>
a disappoint	for <i>disappointment</i>
a steal	for <i>theft</i>
early-risers	for <i>those who rise early</i>
on-lookers	for <i>those who look on</i>

has-beens	for <i>those who have been prominent</i>
resorters	for <i>those who live at a pleasure resort</i>
write-up	for <i>interview</i>

The following words are vulgarisms that are often heard. It is scarcely necessary to say that their use should be carefully avoided.

casualty	for <i>casualty</i>
complected	for <i>complexioned</i>
indecided	for <i>not decided</i>
preventative	for <i>preventive</i>
secondhanded	for <i>secondhand</i>
unbeknown	for <i>unknown</i>
underhanded	for <i>underhand</i>

These incorrect forms are heard in such sentences as the following :

1. The army had thirty *casualties*.
2. The girl was light *complected*.
3. The contest was *indecided*.
4. The medicine was a *preventative*.
5. This is a *secondhanded* car.
6. *Unbeknown* to any one, he took the car away.
7. His conduct was *underhanded*.

As for mistakes in grammar, these will probably be more numerous than any other. Review the work of the seventh and eighth grades and make a list of headings for the different kinds of errors similar to the following :

1. Wrong pronoun forms after the verb *be*
2. Wrong pronoun forms in compound subjects and objects
3. Use of the past participle for a principal verb — as, “I *done* the work”
4. Use of the past tense for the past participle — as, “John *has went* to the office”
5. Mistakes in agreement of subject with verb
6. Mistakes in agreement of pronoun with its antecedent
7. Mistakes in the subjunctive — as, “If I *was* you”

The work of making the survey of errors should begin as soon as the club can agree on a plan, and a definite date should be fixed for a report from each member.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a short talk in which you make an announcement to the club such as are frequently made in assembly sessions. Make certain that you understand what you are going to announce and do not omit any of the essentials. Thus, if you wish to announce an entertainment or a game, you must include the following items: the occasion or the purpose of the event, the names of the persons who are to participate, the time, the place, and sometimes the terms of admission. Try to make the announcement without a single error in speech.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the principal or superintendent telling him about your better-speech campaign and asking him to make suggestions for the work. The best letter should be sent to him.

Talk to the Class. Tell the class ten slang expressions you have heard recently and suggest the correct usage for each. Conclude by giving your own opinion of the dangers of using slang.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the Russell Sage Foundation, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, ordering a copy of the Ayres Spelling List. This is a list of words suitable for review and for your spelling match.

Reports of the Survey. The president of the English club should appoint committees to tabulate the different kinds of errors—for example, one for errors in pronunciation, another for slang ex-

pressions, and another for faulty grammar. The reports, or lists, brought in by the pupils should be submitted to the committees and a permanent list of errors prepared. The permanent lists should be copied in the notebooks, or copies typed by the commercial classes. These should be used throughout the year.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to another class challenging it to an old-fashioned spelling match. Use the Ayres List or a similar one.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk to the class on an interesting current event bearing on one of the following civic topics: health, education, recreation, protection of life or property, street improvement, or fire prevention.

II. MODIFIERS AGAIN

You have already learned that there are two kinds of modifiers — adjectives and adverbs. You will now study adjectives and adverbs from the standpoint of good usage. You will not need, therefore, to consider the different classes of each. Such work seems unnecessary and unprofitable. Our discussion will cover only such principles of good usage as a careful study of hundreds of themes and oral recitations has shown that pupils violate most frequently.

ADJECTIVES

Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs. Some adjectives and adverbs change their form to denote the degree of the quality or idea which they express

— for example, *long*, *longer*, *longest*. These forms are called the positive, the comparative, and the superlative degrees. The positive degree is the ordinary form of the word, and it is used when no comparison is intended. The comparative degree should generally be used when two things are compared. The superlative degree is the form used when more than two things are compared.

1. My coat is *heavier* than yours. (Comparative degree of heavy.)
2. My coat is the *heaviest* in the room. (Superlative degree of heavy.)
3. John walked *faster* than I. (Comparative degree of the adverb fast.)
4. Henry came *sooner* than we expected.

Baskerville and Sewell, in their *English Grammar*, say that the superlative degree of the adjective (or adverb) is also frequently used in comparing only two things. An examination of the works of such authors as Addison, Irving, Hawthorne, Ruskin, Emerson, and even the most recent writers confirms this assertion. The expression “the larger of the two” is certainly not more popular in ordinary English than “the largest of the two”, and it is hardly more in favor in good literature. Dr. Hall says that the comparative degree of adjectives is on the road to extinction except before *than*. Of this you can be sure — namely, that the comparative should be used with *than* — thus :

larger than he
older than Mary
faster than I

Sometimes the comparative and superlative forms are made up of *more* and *most* with the adjective or

adverb. These phrases should be used only when they sound better. It is not correct to say that all adjectives of more than two syllables require *more* and *most*. Many persons say *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful* only because it sounds better. Again, *less* and *least* are similarly used to make up comparative and superlative phrases. As a substantive the expression "the lesser" may be considered correct, but not "lesser than I."

A few words are compared irregularly. Only those that have actually been found frequently misused by pupils are given below. Learn them so thoroughly that you will make no errors.

little	less	least
bad	worse	worst
good, well	better	best
far	farther (distance)	farthest
far	further	furthest

In order that you may not make incorrect comparisons, you must observe certain cautions. The most important of these can be stated very briefly: the comparative degree is exclusive, the superlative inclusive. When you use the comparative degree, one term must not include the other. To prevent this insert the word *other* whenever it is necessary — thus:

1. William is taller than any of his classmates.
2. William is taller than any *other* boy in his class.

William is not one of his own classmates; therefore *other* is not needed in the first sentence. In the second sentence the first term is *William* and the second *any boy in his class*. Now, *William* is one of the boys in his class, and we must, therefore,

make the second term exclude him by putting in the word *other*. When the superlative degree of comparison is used, one term should include the other — thus :

1. This is the *largest* book in the collection.

It would not be correct to say, "John is the tallest of all his brothers." Here *John* is one of the terms and *brothers* the other. The first is not included in the second. The superlative cannot be used. Change to the comparative degree — thus, "John is taller than any of his brothers."

Some adjectives do not admit of comparison. They include *round, square, perfect, wooden*, and the like. You may, however, use such preferred expressions as *more nearly square, more nearly perfect*.

In older literature, especially in Shakespeare, you occasionally find double comparison — for example, *most unkindest*. In present day English the double comparative and the double superlative should not be used. Avoid *more friendlier, most laziest, worsser, baddest, littler, weller, farer*, and the like.

In negative sentences use *so . . . as*; in others use *as . . . as* — thus :

1. My book is not so interesting as yours.
2. He is as tall as you.

The Incorrect Use of A and An. Strange as it may seem, the words *a* and *an* are often misused. *An* should be used before words beginning with a vowel or a vowel sound, and *a* should be used before those beginning with consonants. Do not say "a ice wagon", "a audience", "a hour",

and many others. It must, however, be said that these errors occur largely in speech and not in writing. They are due, no doubt, to carelessness.

Personal Pronouns Confused with the Adjectives This and That. *This* and *that* have their own plurals — *these* and *those*. *This* and *these* are used in speaking of objects near, and *that* and *those* of objects somewhat removed. Remember that *this* and *that* should be used only with singular subjects, and *these* and *those* with plural ones — thus:

1. *This kind* of fruit is delicious.
2. *These kinds* of fruit are delicious.
3. *That sort* of conduct is bad.
4. *Those kinds* of fruits should be sold.

But perhaps the most frequent error is the use of the pronoun *them* instead of *these* and *those*. Do not say, “*Them boys* played ball.” “*Those boys* played ball” is correct. Avoid “this here” and “that there.”

Choice of Adjectives. You should not leave the study of adjectives until you have considered the choice of words. An examination of the oral and written English of school children has revealed the careless and extravagant use of certain common adjectives — such as *lovely*, *grand*, *nice*, *awful*, *terrible*, *wonderful*, and a few others. Inaccuracies in the use of these words are perhaps due to an attempt to achieve the language of flattery, or to emphasize certain qualities without taking the time and thought to find the correct word. You have often heard such expressions as “lovely time”, “lovely dinner”, “lovely ride”, “lovely candy”, “lovely music”, etc. It is evident that such carelessness is inexcusable. *Lovely* may very properly be used

of that which has beauty or beauty of character, but not of everything pleasing or attractive. *Grand* is heard in a similar way in such expressions as “*grand time*”, “*grand man*”, “*grand music*”, “*your hat is perfectly grand*”, etc. Correctly used the word *grand* refers to that which is imposing in magnitude, majesty, or nobility. *Nice* is heard in such expressions as “*nice boy*”, “*nice time*”, “*nice suit*”, “*nice hat*”, “*nice music*”, “*nice fellow*”, “*nice rain*”, etc. *Nice* in the sense of precise is quite right, but it should not be used in the sense of *pleasing*, *kind*, and *considerate*. *Awful* and *terrible* are perhaps more frequently misused than any other word. You hear the first of the two in “*awful good*”, “*awful funny*”, “*awful slow*”, “*awful fine fellow*.” In nine cases out of ten the word should be the adverb *very* and not the adjective *awful* at all. *Awful* may properly be used of that which fills one with *awe*, and *terrible* of that which fills one with *terror*. Again, the attempt to emphasize certain expressions has given rise in careless speech to “*little bittie*”, “*great big*”, “*blackest black*”, etc.

The following adjectives are frequently misused in written work:

1. **angry, mad.** **Angry** means affected with anger. **Mad** means insane, enraged, furious. **Mad** is used in a colloquial sense for **angry** or **vexed**, but should not be used in written work.
2. **complexioned, complected.** The right word is **complexioned**. **Complected** is not recognized as a good word.
3. **deathly, deadly.** **Deathly** means like death or pertaining to death — as, **deathly pale**. **Deadly** means causing death — as, a **deadly wound**.

4. **elder, older.** **Elder** is used properly with reference to persons only.
5. **equally as, equally.** **Equally as** is heard in such expressions as "equally as good", "equally as well", and "equally as intelligent." The word **as** should be omitted in these phrases — thus, "equally good", "equally well", "equally intelligent."
6. **fewer, less, smaller.** **Fewer** refers especially to number. **Less** refers to quantity, degree, bulk, amount, value, and number not taken individually. **Smaller** is opposed to **larger** and is used of size, dimensions, or amount. **Less** is opposed to **greater**.
7. **funny, odd, strange.** **Odd** and **strange** are rarely misused, but **funny** is often incorrectly used instead of these words. Use **funny** only in speaking of that which produces fun or mirth. Do not say, "It is a funny looking thing," but "It is an odd looking thing."
8. **healthful, healthy.** **Healthful** should be used in speaking of that which promotes health or is favorable to health. **Healthy** means in a state or condition of health. One should say "a healthful climate" and "a healthy boy."
9. **posted, informed.** Do not use **posted** in the sense of **informed**.
10. **unbeknown, unknown.** Do not use **unbeknown**, because it is not considered a good word.
11. **worst, worst kind.** Use simply the word **worst**.

Exercise 1

Choose the correct form and give a reason for your choice :

1. This is the (difficultest, most difficult) task I have ever done.
2. I thought it was (a, an) Indian arrow.
3. One of (those, that) type of men can do much harm.
4. No one saw (them, those) boys steal the apples.
5. (This here, This) plan was opposed by the mayor.
6. We saw (a old, an old) man coming down the street.

7. Your father is not (so, as) wealthy as mine.
8. (Those, that) sort of conduct is very disgraceful.
9. Texas is larger than (any, any other) State in the Union.
10. Mary is the (taller, tallest) of all her classmates.
11. The boy who can draw the (better, best) will secure the prize.
12. This circle is (rounder, more nearly round).
13. This phrase is (commoner, more common).
14. The foreigner who appeared at the office was light (complexed, complexioned).
15. James was very (mad, angry) with me, because I refused to help him.
16. My pen is (equally as good, equally good).
17. Mosquitoes carry the germs of the most (deadly, deathly) diseases.
18. Mr. Simpson is (an awfully nice, a very agreeable) man in his business relations.
19. We have surely had a (grand, very pleasant) time together.
20. (Fewer, Less) than half of the regiment returned after the war.
21. The evidence indicated that a (funny, strange) situation existed in the circumstances of the stranger's death.
22. The burglar wore (a funny, an odd) looking cap.
23. The demand for sugar is now (more greater, greater) than formerly.
24. The village was situated (farer, farther, further) east than Decatur.
25. The teacher seemed well (posted, informed) in the literature of his subject.
26. (Less, Fewer) than twenty men have enrolled in the new class.
27. Harry is (the brightest of all others in his class, brighter than any other boy in his class).
28. Put (them, those) apples into the barrel.
29. The child was (mad, angry) because his mother had punished him.
30. California has a (healthy, healthful) climate.
31. A (great big, big) dog came running from the barnyard.
32. My uncle lives in the (beautifulest, most beautiful) house in the city.
33. New York and Chicago are the (most principal, principal) cities in the United States.

34. My employer is not (as, so) kind as yours.
35. The four (smaller, smallest) cities need not be mentioned.
36. The old gentleman did not (badly, greatly) want to live.
37. Sister and I measured, and she was the (tallest, taller).
38. Do not criticize (these here, these) statements of mine.
39. (An awful, A bad) storm arose.

ADVERBS

The most common errors in the use of adverbs occur in the confusion of adjectives and adverbs, choice of adverbs, the misplacing of modifiers, and the use of the double negative. All matters such as the kinds or classes will be omitted, and good usage will be studied under the four headings which we have just mentioned.

Confusion of Adjectives and Adverbs. Under this heading you will study only the words that have been most frequently misused. The list that follows does not cover all mistakes that may be made.

1. **bad, badly.** **Bad** is the adjective form; **badly** the adverb. Be careful to distinguish between **badly** and **greatly** — thus:
 1. Help was greatly needed.
 2. The soldier was badly injured.
2. **good, well.** **Good** is the adjective; **well** the adverb.
3. **most, almost.** **Most** is the adjective; **almost** the adverb. **Most** is, however, an adverb in such expressions as **most difficult**. Do not say, "He was most exhausted." Say, "He was almost exhausted."
4. **near, nearly.** **Nearly** is the adverb. Do not use **near** for **nearly**. Use **nearly** in such expressions as this: "I am not nearly so tall as you." Also use **not nearly** instead of the incorrect expression **nowheres near**. "He is nowheres near so wise as his friend" should be written "He is not nearly so wise as his friend."

5. **some, somewhat.** **Some** is the adjective; **somewhat** the adverb. Use **somewhat** in all such expressions as this: "We became somewhat tired." The incorrect expressions "**kindie**" or "**kinda**" should not be used instead of **somewhat**. "It is **kindie** cold to-day" should be written "It is **somewhat** cold to-day."
6. **sure, surely.** **Sure** is the adjective; **surely** is the adverb. Use **surely** in all such expressions as "I **surely** was hungry."
7. **two, too, to.** It is strange that these little words should so often be used incorrectly. **Two** is a numeral substantive or adjective; **too** is an adverb; and **to** is a preposition. Use **too** in such expressions as "He is **too** young to enlist."

Choice of Adverbs. There are certain incorrect adverbial forms that should be carefully avoided. These include such forms as *nowheres*, *someplace*, *kindie*, *kinda*, *sortie*, and the like. Use *nowhere* and *somewhere* instead of *nowheres* and *somewheres*. Use *somewhere* instead of *someplace*. Use *somewhat* or *rather* instead of *kinda*, *kindie*, *sortie*, *kind of*, *sort of*. Another word that is frequently misused is *never*. Do not use it as an ordinary negative, because it means *not ever*. "I *never* went" is wrong; say, "I *did not* go." The adverbs *respectfully* and *respectively* are often confused. *Respectfully* means *with respect*. *Respectively* means *in the order named or written*. The word *respectfully* is correctly used in the close of a letter. *Always* and *usually* are also sometimes confused. *Always* means *at all times*; *usually* means *ordinarily*.

Misplacing of Modifiers. The great rule for the placing of modifiers may be stated thus: *Always place a modifier as close as possible to the word it modifies.* The most frequently misplaced word is *only*.

In good literature it is not always placed just before or after the word it modifies, but it certainly should be so placed whenever it would prevent a double meaning or add to clearness. Get in the habit of placing *only* where it belongs. In written work phrases and even clauses are often misplaced. In the following sentences phrase and clause modifiers are not correctly placed :

1. We saw a man in the field plowing *with gray hair*.
2. When a pupil disturbs the room, he should receive punishment by the president of the class *which should be severe*.
3. The adventures were indeed very interesting *that he passed through*.
4. I saw some books for pupils *in a case*.
5. The speaker mentioned the landing of our troops in France *at the banquet*.

When the modifiers in these sentences are correctly placed, much is gained in clearness and emphasis :

1. We saw a man with gray hair plowing in the field.
2. When a pupil disturbs the room, he should receive severe punishment from the president of the class.
3. The adventures that he passed through were indeed interesting.
4. In a case I saw some books for pupils.
5. At the banquet this evening the speaker mentioned the landing of our troops in France.

The Double Negative. Negatives include *no*, *not*, *never*, *neither*, and the like. The double negative — the use of two negatives — should be avoided. Notice its use in the following sentences :

1. I *never* got *no* more.
2. There was *n't hardly* any there.
3. We *never* saw *nobody*.

4. I *never* did *no* copying.
5. The boy could *n't* see *nothing*.
6. I *can't* *scarcely* reach the bottom.

The above sentences are greatly improved by the omission of one of the negatives — thus :

1. I got no more.
2. There was hardly any there.
3. We saw nobody.
4. I did no copying.
5. The boy could see nothing.
6. I can scarcely reach the bottom.

Exercise 2

The following sentences include the use of both adjectives and adverbs. Choose the correct word or expression and give a reason for your choice. When no choice is indicated, correct the errors.

1. We only have one God.
2. (There, Their) was no way by which we could escape.
3. There were (quite a few, a great many) horses on the farm.
4. It rained (awful, very) hard.
5. (They, There) was one fellow who was insane.
6. Charles did n't see nothing of her.
7. This here man was a thief.
8. They don't pay no attention to the way they should walk.
9. Rhode Island is the smallest of all other States in the Union.
10. The business men (could n't hardly, could hardly) get to their places of business.
11. The pupils kinda felt they had n't given her a good reception.
12. Won't you speak a little more (clear, clearly)?
13. He very (near, nearly) hit one of the soldiers.
14. The carpenter was (a little, somewhat) angry.
15. We all felt (awful funny, very queer) when we were caught.
16. Our team came (nowheres, nowhere) near winning.
17. All the laborers worked real hard.
18. Everyone thought he would (sure, surely) get married.

19. This man was so fussed up that he could n't hardly say nothing.
20. When we had (most, almost) finished our work, the storm came.
21. The woman shot as (good, well) as any of the men.
22. We got up (kinda, rather) early in the morning.
23. We did n't have (nothing, anything) to do.
24. She was a pretty speedy coaster.
25. We never ate no more.
26. I only saw him once.
27. I was so cold that I could n't dress myself (good, well).
28. Yours (respectively, respectfully).
29. The moon looks (beautiful, beautifully).
30. Mr. Jones is a dark (complected, complexioned) man.
31. My friend came unbeknown to me.
32. Fannie is an illy mannered little girl.
33. Arthur is a (remarkable, remarkably) poor speller.
34. You speak entirely (to, too) (slowly, slow).
35. The noise sounds (loud, loudly).
36. I was hurt pretty (bad, badly).
37. I never knew how to swim.
38. No one else can swim (so, as) (good, well) as he.
39. We were all (very, very much) scared.
40. The water lay (smooth, smoothly) in the little pond.
41. The teacher had taught Latin (previous, previously) to this year.
42. The Indian was (terrible, terribly) angry.
43. Have you anything (farther, further) to say on the subject?
44. The child acted (bad, badly) toward his parents.
45. Our troops arrived (safe, safely) in France.
46. The minister stood (thoughtfully, thoughtful) for a moment.
47. They put a boy on the end of the board that weighed a hundred pounds.
48. Our grocer is a nice man.
49. All agreed that we had had a (lovely, very pleasant) time.
50. The child wanted to go (someplace, somewhere) in the afternoon.
51. The governor was in (extreme, extremely) good health.
52. Charles did n't do it, neither.
53. The sleeping warrior looked (fiercely, fierce).
54. The work can be done (easy, easily) by the first of March.

55. His work is (more perfect, more nearly perfect) than yours.
56. No fruit is so good as the lemon.
57. John never cared for (these, this) kind of books.
58. There was n't (nobody, anybody) on that block but us.
59. I only heard one-half of the address.
60. In St. Louis we have cyclones (quite frequent, quite frequently).
61. That was all the farther I could go.
62. Uncle generally always got what he wanted.
63. We did n't have no rules for playing the game.
64. A gray boy's coat was found in the yard.
65. The superintendent (did n't hardly, hardly) wanted to grant our request.
66. Henry had almost finished the first half of his problems when he began to feel very (bad, badly).
67. When George had (most, almost) finished, the bell rang.
68. There was n't but one boy who could solve the tenth problem.
69. The principal asked him why he did that for.
70. There is (not but one, only one) left in the box.
71. The worms were put into a small box which are bait for fish.
72. I saw a man carrying a heavy box on crutches.
73. The tramp (sure, surely) was hungry.
74. The children almost tried to eat everything in the house.
75. The five men greatly respected (each other, one another).
76. You will be permitted to select (any, either) of the models in the store.
77. (Fewer, Less) than ten were present at the opening session.
78. Will you be here on time? (Sure, Surely.)
79. That suit looks (good, well) on you.
80. What (farther, further) complaints have you to make?
81. The child seems (well, good) to-day.
82. I will buy you a (nice, beautiful) dress for a birthday present.
83. The speaker made a (beautiful, nice) distinction between the types of men.
84. This is the most perfect specimen we have found.
85. My brother weighs (less, lesser) than I.
86. Everyone in the class did his work (some, somewhat) better to-day.
87. When we reached home, we were (a little, somewhat) tired.
88. The boys were nowheres near so well prepared to recite as the girls.

Misplacing Modifiers Again. As you learned in a previous paragraph, you should always place a modifier as close as possible to the word it modifies. By observing this rule you will gain in clearness and effectiveness of expression.

Participial phrases are often misplaced. When a participle is placed too far from the word it modifies, it is described as a "dangling participle." In order to avoid this error one must not lose sight of the word to which the participle belongs. The following sentences illustrate the so-called "dangling participle":

1. *Walking down the street*, an accident was seen.
2. *Getting up early in the morning*, the first thing we saw was a great fire in the distance.
3. The error of the boy can hardly be pardoned, *refusing to give careful attention to the matter*.
4. *After making a satisfactory explanation of his conduct*, the teacher let Henry go.

In correcting the errors in these sentences, you must find something for the participle to modify. If such word is not stated, it must be provided. Observe the changes in these sentences:

1. *Walking down the street*, I saw an accident.
2. *Getting up early in the morning*, we saw a great fire in the distance.
3. *Refusing to give careful attention to the matter*, the boy can hardly be pardoned the error.
4. *After making a satisfactory explanation of his conduct*, Henry was permitted to go.

Exercise 3

Rewrite the following sentences, observing the rule that a modifier should be placed as close as possible to the word to which it belongs:

1. A boy came running into my room with light hair and blue eyes.
2. Climbing a tree I saw a cat trying to catch a bird.
3. His letters gave an account of the celebration on plain manila paper.
4. A child was found lying on the bank of the river with its legs broken.
5. Take one of the tablets before retiring in a glass of hot water.
6. We saw a man digging a ditch with a Roman nose.
7. Crossing the street, the thieves could easily be seen.
8. Taking the shells off the nuts, they were stirred into the candy.
9. I saw a child knocked down by an automobile from my study window.
10. Standing on the platform, Roosevelt's picture was taken.
11. It is a wise thing to be punctual in attendance, having had my grades lowered for being late.
12. Walking down the street, a fire was noticed.
13. No man could lift the heavy load without some one to assist him who is weak from sickness.
14. This kind of conduct is wrong, in general.
15. The girls in the play were very attractive, dressed in pure white.
16. I thought that I would surely drown many times before reaching the shore.
17. The boy won the prize that studied the hardest.
18. The house is mine that stands on the corner painted white.
19. The girl had not heard the whistle that was reading a novel.
20. I have thought I would join your church on many different occasions.

CHAPTER THREE

I. COMPOSITION BASED ON A STUDY OF THE OCCUPATIONS

You have no doubt already asked yourself the question, "What shall I do when I grow up?" This is indeed important and you should begin to think seriously about the matter. Everywhere there are men and women engaged in the occupations. Many have succeeded. Some have even accumulated wealth and fame, while others have rendered distinguished public services. You will find it interesting and profitable to investigate the different kinds of work in which these people are engaged. Such study will furnish knowledge and experience on which you may be able to base your choice of a life work.

PROJECT III. MAKING A STUDY OF THE OCCUPATIONS

Planning the Work. Perhaps you are somewhat puzzled to know where you can find out about the various occupations. If so, you will be pleased to know that there are many sources of information. Of these the principal ones are the following: (1) interviews with persons engaged in the particular line of work, (2) visits to places where the work is being done, (3) trade and business journals, (4) news-

papers and magazines, and (5) books on vocational subjects. The foregoing list does not include your own experience in the different kinds of work during vacation time, the most direct and effective way of learning the nature of an occupation. If you have worked in a drug store, a dry-goods store, a garage, or elsewhere, you have learned many important facts about the work. Concerning this experience you will find it easy to speak and write. With the several sources of information in mind, you should be able to find out many interesting things about the different occupations, which will not only prepare you to speak and write interestingly but also help you to decide upon your life work.

Committees should be appointed by the president of the class to investigate and report on the following :

1. Available books on the study of the occupations
2. Wages in the various occupations
3. Wages of high-school graduates compared with eighth-grade graduates
4. Labor unions and some of the good things they have accomplished

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to some prominent person engaged in one of the trades or professions asking him for an interview. Tell him about the project your class has undertaken and make it plain that you wish to obtain interesting facts about the work in which he is engaged.

Talk to the Class. Plan a two-minute talk in which you tell of an interview with some one engaged in a trade or profession. Try to present the report in an interesting manner. With the class as a club and the president or some other member presiding,

begin by saying: " Mr. President, I should like to tell the class about an interesting interview I have had." The following list will prove suggestive:

1. An interview with a merchant
2. An interview with a lawyer
3. An interview with a physician
4. An interview with an insurance agent
5. An interview with a civil engineer
6. An interview with an electrical engineer
7. An interview with a mechanical engineer
8. An interview with a teacher
9. An interview with a minister
10. An interview with a manufacturer

Written English. Write an interesting account of one of the foregoing interviews. Use the preparation you made for your talk, but try to improve your language by finding new and original ways of saying things. The best report should be sent to the school paper.

A Class Debate. Prepare an argument for or against one of the following propositions. Arrange your points in the form of an outline, or brief, placing your strongest argument last. Remember that merely saying a thing does not usually convince any one. You must give proof — illustrations, reasons, authorities, etc.

1. The physician renders society more valuable services than the lawyer.
2. The minister does a greater work for the community than the teacher.
3. One can succeed more easily in business than in the professions.
4. The trades offer greater advantages than the professions.

Making an Outline. Choose any occupation that you like and prepare an outline for an extended re-

port. If you prefer, you may use the following form, which was prepared in part by the National Committee on English :

- I. How to enter the occupation
 1. Preparation
 - (1) General education
 - (2) Special education
 - (3) Apprenticeship, etc.
 2. Other points
- II. Work done by those who engage in it
- III. Steps in promotion and probable ultimate attainment
- IV. Personal qualifications for success
- V. General principles of success
- VI. Advantages and disadvantages of the calling

Secure the necessary information and expand the foregoing outline. Place your work in your notebook.

Written English. Using the foregoing outline, write a report to be read to the class or turned in to the teacher as may be required. This will require several paragraphs. Before beginning to write, read carefully the following explanation of the structure of the paragraph :

The *paragraph* should usually begin with a sentence that gives the topic, or subject, of the division. Such a sentence serves as a label and is called the *topic sentence*. For illustration we quote a paragraph from a pupil's theme. Note that the first sentence tells what the author is going to present.

"It requires several years of careful training to prepare for the practice of law. One should at least complete the work of the grammar school and the high school. In order to stand at the head of the profession, one should also take a complete college

course. When this work is finished, three years of training in a recognized school of law must be undertaken and completed."

As you perhaps know there are several kinds of paragraphs — those that tell stories, make pictures, explain things, or seek to convince. There are also those that combine story-telling and picture-making, and others explanation and argument. Sometimes, too, a paragraph may be used not to present new ideas but to connect other paragraphs. This is called a *transitional paragraph*.

In developing a paragraph that tells a story, you merely follow the time order — that is, you tell things in the order in which they occur. In developing a descriptive paragraph, you follow the space order — that is, you mention things together that belong together in space. The structure of the narrative and the descriptive paragraphs do not require a great deal of study.

In the project that you are now engaged upon, you will use extensively the paragraph that explains and the paragraph that seeks to convince. These may be developed in a number of different ways. It will be helpful to study them briefly.

A topic may easily be expanded by the *giving of examples*. Take, for example, the statement "A pupil can learn to speak in public by joining the literary and debating society and taking part in the work." The topic can be expanded into a well-rounded paragraph by giving two or more examples. One of these may be stated thus: "Mr. J., who gave an address before the auditorium session last Thursday, was once a very active member of his school's literary society."

When you select an illustration, ask the following questions: Is it worth while? Is it accurate? Does it apply closely to the topic? If it does not meet these requirements, it should be discarded.

A topic statement can be developed by *comparing or contrasting* some things with others that are familiar. When you compare two things, you seek to emphasize likenesses; when you contrast them, you point out differences. Your attention constantly falls upon likenesses and differences between objects, places, and persons. You also note differences in ideas and actions, especially the latter — as, cutting, sawing, baking, etc. Every girl who works in the home-economics department knows that there are essential differences in basting, binding, hemming, stitching, and darning. Much of your knowledge of things is based on your consciousness of these likenesses and differences. It is important, therefore, that you should be able to use comparison and contrast effectively in writing the paragraph.

Sometimes the topic sentence requires a *statement of the causes or effects* which make the whole matter clear. Let us notice a statement of this kind. "We gave over the attempt on the second day." This obviously requires the writer to give the causes for giving over the attempt. Again, suppose you take the topic "The health officer had failed to keep the city's water supply pure." Naturally the reader will want to know the effects, or results, of this failure.

Each paragraph should possess *unity*. That is, it should treat of only one topic. If your outline is so constructed that it will contain no points that do not bear on the topic or idea, you will probably

have no difficulty. The paragraph should also possess *coherence*. This means that the sentences should be properly arranged. If you follow one of the plans of development which have just been suggested, you cannot fail to secure coherence and clearness. Again, the paragraph should possess *emphasis*. This means that important thoughts should be made to attract the attention and to cause the reader to remember them. The most emphatic positions are at the beginning or the end of the paragraph. To begin with the topic sentence, therefore, secures emphasis at once. To end with the topic sentence will give perhaps greater emphasis and cause the reader to remember longest.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to some prominent business or professional man asking him to come to the school and talk to your class on the subject *Choosing an Occupation*.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk on one of the following subjects. Arrange your points as directed in the previous exercise. With the class as a club and a member presiding, try to give a helpful and convincing talk.

1. Why I wish to be a teacher
2. Why I wish to be a farmer
3. Why I wish to be a dentist
4. Why I wish to be a merchant
5. Why I wish to be a minister
6. Why I wish to be a stenographer
7. Why I wish to be a salesman
8. Why I wish to be a physician
9. Why I wish to be a mechanic
10. Why I wish to be an architect
11. Why I wish to be a telegrapher
12. Why I wish to be a chemist

II. CONNECTIVES

Prepositions and *conjunctions* are both connectives. A sharp distinction, however, should be made between them. A preposition always takes an object and shows the relation between its object and some other word in the sentence. A conjunction does not take an object, but connects words, phrases, or clauses that are used alike in the sentence, or joins a subordinate clause to some word in the principal clause.

PREPOSITIONS

A preposition and its object and the modifiers of its object make up a *prepositional phrase*. If the object is a personal pronoun or the pronoun *who*, the object form (accusative, or objective) must be used. Remember that these forms are *me*, *us*, *him*, *her*, *them*, and *whom*.

Prepositions Distinguished. We shall try to learn to distinguish certain common prepositions.

1. *In* denotes presence within; *into* motion from the outside to a point within.
 - (1) The book is *in* the box.
 - (2) The child ran *into* the room.
2. *Between* should generally be used with reference to two persons or things; *among* with reference to more than two.
 - (1) The teacher divided the apples *between* John and me.
 - (2) The apples were divided *among* several pupils.
3. *On* and *upon* are used interchangeably, but *upon* is more emphatic.

The responsibility will rest *upon* you.
4. *Beside* means *by the side of*; *besides* means *in addition to*.
 - (1) Sit *beside* me.
 - (2) Have you any plans *besides* this?

5. *A* and *by* are used with English words ; *per* with Latin.
 - (1) The coffee sells for twenty-five cents *a* pound.
 - (2) The secretary receives \$2000 *per* annum.
6. *At* should generally be used in speaking of small places or districts ; *in* of larger cities and countries.
 - (1) We visited friends *in* Chicago.
 - (2) The train stopped *at* the village.
7. *By* is used with reference to the agent ; *with* is used with reference to the instrument.
 - (1) The house was built *by* the carpenter.
 - (2) The soldier was wounded *with* a sharp stick.

Prepositions Following Special Words. Some words should be followed by special prepositions. Learn the following :

1. *Compare to* that which is of unlike nature ; *compare with* that which is of like nature.
 - (1) The iron-clad vessel was *compared to* a floating fort.
 - (2) Your work should be *compared with* mine.
2. *Consist of* means *made of* or *composed of* ; *consist in* means *to have as its character, foundation, or substance*.
 - (1) The program *consists of* music and dancing.
 - (2) Good conduct *consists in* observing all just regulations.
3. *Die of* sickness or something personal : *die by* an instrument.
 - (1) Charles *died of* fever.
 - (2) The soldier *died by* the sword.
4. *Differ from* in respect to likeness ; *differ with* or *from* in respect to opinion. Never say *different than* — for example, "He is *different than* other men." Say, "He is *different from* other men."
 - (1) The man's actions *differ from* his words.
 - (2) I *differ with* you in this matter.

CONJUNCTIONS

You have observed that a conjunction may connect words, phrases, and clauses that are coördinate

— used alike. Tell what each connects in the following sentences :

1. John runs *and* plays.
2. In the office *and* on the street we heard much comment on our work.
3. You must do better work, *or* your employer will discharge you.
4. The man who runs the store *and* who sells machinery is my neighbor.

Both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, and not only . . . but also are used in pairs. They should stand as near as possible to the expressions they connect. It is wrong, for example, to write one with a noun and the other with a verb. Notice the errors in the following :

1. John *either* sold his book *or* his pencil.
2. He *neither* would work for himself *nor* any one else.
3. You must *either* do your duty *or* I will discharge you.
4. *Not only* was he guilty of stealing *but also* of murder.

Written correctly, these sentences become much more effective — thus :

1. John sold *either* his book *or* his pencil.
2. He would work *neither* for himself *nor* any one else.
3. *Either* you must do your duty, *or* I will discharge you.
4. He was guilty *not only* of stealing *but also* of murder.

A conjunction may join a subordinate clause to some word in the principal clause. Note the subordinate conjunctions in the following sentences :

1. *If* the harvest is good, we shall need many men to help with it.
2. *When* the Indians made treaties, they seldom broke them.
3. The governor freed the prisoner *although* many offered objections.
4. He acts *as if* he wished to speak.

5. Do *as* I tell you.
6. As a hawk darts upon its prey, the angry man struck his opponent.

A careful examination of oral and written work shows that the most common mistake in connectives is the use of the preposition *like* for *as* or *as if*. Such sentences as the following occur again and again: "I acted *like* I understood", "It looked *like* it was going to rain", etc. Remember that you must get into the habit of using *as* or *as if* in such sentences — thus: "I acted *as if* I understood", "It looked *as if* it were going to rain." Another very serious error is the use of *and* for *but* — thus: "It was a very difficult task, and I succeeded." A minute's thought makes it clear that *but* should be used — thus: "It was a very difficult task, *but* I succeeded." You should make a determined effort to overcome this tendency and also the very general habit of repeating the word *and*. Try to omit it at least at the beginning of a new sentence.

Exercise 1

Choose the correct preposition or conjunction and give a reason for your choice. Correct errors.

1. I fell (in, into) the water.
2. We walked (in back of, to the rear of) the big tent.
3. What have you (beside, besides) your books?
4. It rained and I went to school as usual.
5. My friend spent the summer (at, in) New York.
6. They acted (like, as if) they did n't care.
7. Henry worked longer and got better results than any one else. (Rearrange.)
8. Neither had he money nor friends.

9. The employer divided the duties (between, among) several of us.
10. There were many stations (along, on) the road.
11. The clerk receives two thousand dollars (per, a) year.
12. The man had been struck (with, by) a train.
13. The outcome was (different than, different from) what we had expected.
14. I don't know (if, whether) I can assist you or not.
15. The baby died (with, of) the croup.
16. Many a soldier has died (by, with) the sword.
17. It seemed (like, as if) he knew everything.
18. You must either do your best, or we shall fail.
19. Mary compared her work (to, with) mine.
20. The house consists (of, in) brick, wood, and glass.
21. (In, Of) what does true patriotism consist?
22. I beg to differ (with, from) you in this matter.
23. The boy looked (like, as) his father.
24. Put the pencil (in, into) the box.
25. At Twelfth Street the old woman (got off of, got off) the car.
26. I do not (remember of, remember) meeting him.
27. The grain was cut (with, by) the scythe.
28. The dog was struck (by, with) a stone.
29. He was neither angry, nor was he jealous.
30. None (besides, beside) you remains on the list.
31. Such a law would be both beneficial to the country and to the individual.
32. It seemed (like, as if) he were in a trance.
33. In time of need he neither would assist you nor me.
34. Our troops had already arrived (at, in) France.
35. We have gained more than you (think for, think).
36. The child played (in, into) the water.
37. Your duties are very different (than, from) mine.
38. The child must sit (beside, besides) its mother.
39. Our lunch (consisted of, consisted in) sandwiches and pie.
40. His leg was cut off (by, with) a stray shell.

CHAPTER FOUR

I. THE SCHOOL PAPER

Preparing Stories for the School Paper. You have no doubt observed that only the best stories are accepted for publication in the school paper or the class magazine. If you wish to succeed in this kind of work, therefore, you must learn something of the structure of the story and how to make your writing interesting.

In writing short themes, particularly the single incident, no formal introduction or conclusion is necessary. The first sentence should start the story, and the last statement of the action connected with the story should be conclusion enough. Suppose you have decided to write on "My First Serious Accident", you will find that it would be difficult to write even the briefest introduction. A minute's thought will convince you that none is required, because your reader does not expect it, and does not even want it. Then you should merely tell your story. Your first sentence should be direct: *My first serious accident was a fall from a cherry tree*, etc. Follow up with the details of the incident. When you have finished, you need not add such needless statements as the following: "Boys should not climb too high in cherry trees."

The beginning should tell who the characters are, when and where the events occur, and the cir-

cumstances. If these things are not made clear in the beginning, they must be cleverly woven in as the story proceeds.

It is important that every story should have a point and that the point should not be disclosed till near the end. The following is a pupil's theme containing an interesting point revealed at the proper place :

SHATTERED HOPES

Once, when I was visiting at a summer resort, I went for a walk in the woods. Finally, I came upon a small, quaint, old cabin standing in a desolate spot. Like any other boy, my longing for adventure was aroused. I advanced cautiously to the window, and, though I could not see into the room, heard voices.

One said, "Let's make one hundred dollar bills."

Then I thought of capturing a band of counterfeiters, single-handed. My picture would be on the front page of a newspaper! I stood thinking as I listened. Presently I heard some one say, "These are fine. Keep it up." After long deliberation, I mustered enough courage to peep into the window to have a look at the desperadoes, when to my surprise, I saw some children playing store!

I was much disappointed, and walked home with shattered hopes and broken spirits.

What is the point in the foregoing story? What would have been the effect if the writer had begun with this statement: "Once, when I was visiting at a summer resort, I thought I had found a band of counterfeiters in a hut, but it was only some children playing store"?

Perhaps you have asked yourself, "How can I make my language more interesting?" If you have, you are on the road to successful writing. The answer to this question would be long and complicated, for there are many things that make language

interesting. However, one of the most effective aids to good writing is the choice of *specific* rather than *general* words. In story-telling, the verbs are likely to be most important and, therefore, should be selected with the greatest care. Note the choice of the word *dashed* in Hawthorne's sentence: "A carriage drawn by four white horses dashed around the turn of the road." If you should substitute the general verb of motion, *came*, you would lose in effectiveness.

Observe the specific terms in the following :

1. The woman *shrieked* defiance at the burglar.
2. The child *crept* to the bank of the stream.
3. We were fairly *hurled* through space.

Use of Conversation. One way, and perhaps the best way, to add interest to a narrative is by the use of *conversation*. If you will practice this kind of writing, you will find that you can soon work with greater freedom and with a less self-conscious and stilted style. You will also soon learn to use correctly quotation marks and a great variety of punctuation.

Before beginning to write stories for the school paper or class magazine, you should study carefully the following rules for the punctuation of direct quotations :

The exact words of another should be inclosed in quotation marks and set off from the rest of the sentence, generally by the comma. The following sentences illustrate the use of the direct quotation :

1. The President said, "Let us make the world safe for democracy."
2. The officer asked, "What is your name?"

3. The salesman inquired, "Which suit do you like best?"
4. The Constitution states the following: "A senator must have attained the age of thirty."
5. "You happened," answered the poet, faintly smiling, "to find in me the likeness of the Great Stone Face."

As the quotation is frequently used, you should learn how to write it correctly. There are certain rules for capitalization and punctuation that should be carefully learned. You will now see just what these are:

1. A direct quotation should begin with a capital letter. If broken by such expressions as *said he*, *replied she*, *he answered*, and the like, the second part should not begin with a capital letter unless it is the beginning of a new sentence. Notice how this broken quotation is written:

"I should have sentenced you to prison," said the judge, "had I done my duty."

2. Frequently the second part of the quotation begins with a new sentence. In this case a capital letter should be used — thus:

1. "Good evening," said the poet. "Can you give me a night's lodging?"
2. "No," said the scholar. "The study of algebra gives mental discipline."
3. "This is my farm," said John. "No one should think he can induce me to part with it."

3. A short quotation should be set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma. When the quotation is broken, two commas are needed — thus:

"Mother," said Charles, "I wish I could go to the river to-day."

4. If the quotation is long, or formally introduced, it should be preceded by a colon — thus :

1. Concerning one of his ancestors, a judge who had dealt harshly with the Salem witches, Hawthorne writes:
 “I take shame upon myself for their sakes, and yet strong traits of their nature have intertwined with mine.”
2. King Philip’s words to the white settlers were as follows:
 “Thou hast taught me the art of destruction.”

5. A quotation that occurs within a quotation should be inclosed in single marks — thus :

The instructor said, “The captain’s words were these : ‘Don’t give up the ship.’”

6. Titles of books, papers, magazines, and documents should be inclosed in quotation marks unless they are commonly known — as, Read’s “The Abolition of Inheritance.” Titles are often printed in italics.

7. In writing conversation, begin a new paragraph every time the speaker changes — thus :

“What interests you so intently?” asked Hugh.

“That photograph. Who is it?”

Hugh took the photograph from the wall and looked at the back. “Daniel Ryan, an old timer,” he remarked.

An indirect quotation is generally introduced by the word *that* and does not begin with a capital letter. Note also that it is not set off by a comma.

In ordinary speech and frequently in writing the introductory word *that* is omitted — thus :

Frank said *he would come*.

The indirect quotation is a substantive clause used as the object of a verb of telling, inquiring, and the

like. In the following sentence it is the object of the verb *said*:

George said that the game was interesting.

You have seen that a question may be quoted directly. You are now to learn that it may also be stated indirectly and that, when so stated, it is called an indirect question. The indirect question is used substantively. Compare the two statements that follow:

1. The officer asked, "Who struck the child?"
2. The officer asked who struck the child.

An indirect question does not begin with a capital letter and is not followed by a question mark. It is generally introduced by one of the following words: *who*, *what*, *which*, *why*, *how*, and *whether*. *Who*, *which*, and *what* may be pronouns or adjectives according to their use. *Why* and *how* are adverbs. *Whether* is a conjunction.

1. The farmer asked *who* broke the gate.
2. The president inquired *what* course to follow. (What course he should follow.)
3. The people wish to know *why* the guilty are not punished.

You have perhaps observed that your written conversations sound somewhat monotonous and often lack interest. This is no doubt due to the fact that you have used such expressions as "said he" and "said she" over and over again. In order to secure variety you should learn a list of words that can be used instead of these. The words in such a list will have different shades of meaning, and it should be a pleasure for you to select the precise one to express your thought. Note care-

fully the following list. Try to determine under just what circumstances each would be appropriate. Remember that the specific word is always more effective than just the general term "said."

added	declared	moaned
admitted	demanded	muttered
admonished	denied	nodded
answered	exclaimed	ordered
argued	growled	persisted
asked	grumbled	queried
begged	hailed	replied
called	inquired	returned
commanded	insisted	sneered
cried	laughed	uttered

PROJECT IV. HOLDING A STORY CONTEST

Planning the Work. When planning the work, the president of the English club should preside or call upon some other member to take the chair. Follow parliamentary usage, addressing the chairman when you wish to speak and making every definite proposal in the form of a motion — for example, "Mr. President, I move that every member be required to read his story to the class, or club." Such questions as the following should be considered: When shall the contest end? Shall the stories be read to the class and the best one selected by vote? How many shall be submitted to the school paper? What should be the conditions of the contest?

The following is a suggestive list of conditions for your story contest:

1. The title must be both attractive and appropriate. It must be written in the center of the page at the top and the principal words capitalized.
2. There must be a uniform margin on the left side.

3. The story must show the use of specific words wherever possible.
4. Conversation should be used as a definite means of securing interest, and each speech should stand as a separate paragraph.
5. The work should be free from grammatical errors.

Talk to the Class. With the class as a club and some member presiding, re-tell an interesting story you have read in a magazine. In the beginning answer the questions *who*, *when*, and *where* and state the circumstances that will enable the class to understand the story. Be careful not to disclose your point till near the close.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to a pupil absent on account of sickness, telling him about your story contest. As this is a friendly letter rather than a business letter, add other school news and write in an informal manner much as you would talk, avoiding errors, of course.

Talk to the Class. Select one of the following stories, condense, and re-tell it :

1. *Treasure Island*
2. *The Lady of the Lake*
3. *Evangeline*
4. *Tom Brown's School Days*
5. *Ivanhoe*

Written English. As a preparation for the work of writing a story for the contest, choose one of the following subjects and write a conversation. First make a rough copy ; then read it over carefully, using the most appropriate variants for *said*. Be careful to punctuate your quotations correctly. Remember that the introductory words *now* and *well* and words of address are set off by commas —

thus: "Well, my little man, how old are you?" Remember also that every time the speaker changes you should make a new paragraph, however short the speech may be. When you have made as many corrections as you can, write a finished copy for your teacher. Be careful to use quotation marks correctly.

1. A little boy at the Zoo
2. A talkative boy at church
3. An inquisitive friend
4. A conversation with a tramp
5. A dialogue with the dentist
6. An inquisitive child at the parade
7. On the baseball field with a "fan"
8. An Italian guide and an American tourist
9. Just parrots
10. A Swede and a mine boss
11. An inquisitive boy at the picture show
12. A peddler and a woman
13. A farmer and a lightning-rod salesman
14. A swimming lesson
15. My first interview with the principal
16. Sent to bed
17. Talking mother to sleep
18. An unpleasant five minutes with the teacher
19. An argument that failed

Talk to the Class. Read one of the following short stories and re-tell it to the class. Be careful to give the setting and circumstances. The short story, like the novel, consists of a series of incidents so arranged as to lead to a climax, or point. This series of incidents makes up the plot. If necessary, make a list of the incidents in the proper order and give some attention to the language of your beginning and close. Try to make your story interesting for your classmates. Tell the class the title,

the author's name, and the name of the book or collection in which the story may be found. You may be able to interest others so much that they will want to read it or to find other stories from the same author.

1. Hawthorne's *The Ambitious Guest*; in *Twice Told Tales*
2. Kipling's *Namgay Doola*; in *Plain Tales from the Hills*
3. O. Henry's *The Gift of the Magi*; in *The Four Million*
4. Clemens' *The Stolen White Elephant*; in *Tom Sawyer*
5. Stevenson's *The Merry Men*; in *The Merry Men*
6. Guy de Maupassant's *A Ghost*; in *The Odd Number*
7. Harte's *The Outcasts of Poker Flat*; in *The Luck of Roaring Camp*
8. Kipling's *Moti Guj*; in *Plain Tales from the Hills*
9. Poe's *The Gold Bug*; in *Prose Tales*
10. Poe's *The Purloined Letter*; in *Prose Tales*
11. Hale's *The Man Without a Country*; in *The Man Without a Country*
12. Hawthorne's *Feathertop*; in *Mosses from an Old Manse*
13. Doyle's *The Red-Headed League*; in *Adventures of Sherlock Holmes*
14. James Lane Allen's *The Flute and Violin*; in *The Flute and Violin*
15. Mary E. Wilkins-Freeman's *A New England Nun*; in *A New England Nun*

Written English. Select one of the following beginnings for stories and complete it in the way that seems to you most appropriate :

1. One day when my friend Brown and I were camping on the river, old Bones, my favorite hound, suddenly bounded into camp carrying a strange hat covered with blood.
2. As John Ray and I came home from the city a few nights ago we saw a strange sight in a country churchyard. We were very much frightened, but decided we would drive past in a dead run. Just as we drew near our horse too became frightened, and refused to move forward.
3. One stormy night, Mother and Father decided to go to church and leave me alone. It was the first time I had ever re-

mained alone after dark. I had hardly settled myself before the library fire and begun to read, when I heard a peculiar moaning sound in the hall above.

Written English. Choose an idea for a story and arrange the incidents so that they will lead naturally to a climax or point. This should be your best effort and your work should be designed for the contest for which you have been preparing. In order to secure interest, use conversation and specific language. You should also strive for variety of sentence structure, beginning some of your sentences with subordinate clauses, participial expressions, or prepositional phrases. When you have made your work conform to the terms of the contest, you may inform the teacher or president of the English club that you are ready to read your story.

A Story Program. At a definite time all stories should be ready for the contest. This exercise should constitute the final program of this project. Read your story to the class. When every member has finished, vote to determine the best one. This should then be submitted to the school paper.

II. ESSENTIAL AND NON-ESSENTIAL CLAUSES

Read the following sentences carefully. Could the subordinate clause in each be omitted without loss to the thought of the principal clause?

1. There were only two *that tried to win the prize*.
2. I was glad to meet the man *who built your house*.
3. It is important *that the plans be made in advance*.
4. The work must begin *if the weather will permit*.
5. *Wherever you find a plant*, loosen the dirt around it.

In the foregoing examples you will observe that the subordinate clause is essential to the expression of the thought of the principal clause. In other words you could not omit it without leaving the thought incomplete. Clauses of this kind are called *essential clauses*.

Examine carefully the sentences in the following group. Could the subordinate clause in each be omitted without leaving the thought of the clause on which it depends incomplete?

1. Mr. Johnson, *who is a contractor*, left for an extended vacation in the West.
2. In the evening we reached Chicago, *where we remained for several days*.
3. The child gave the monkey a peanut, *which he eagerly grasped with his paws*.
4. I have written a good theme, *if I do say it myself*.

In the foregoing sentences the subordinate clauses can be omitted without leaving the thought of the principal clause incomplete. They are, therefore, called *non-essential clauses*. You will observe that they are set off by commas.

Non-essential clauses may be further classified as *free*, *loosely connected*, *forward-moving*, or *parenthetical*. The following are examples of the various kinds :

1. George, *who had now reached his fiftieth year*, was employed to fill the position. (Free.)
2. We finally reached the river, *where we sat down to rest and refresh ourselves*. (Loosely connected.)
3. I handed the tramp a piece of bread, *which he seized with great eagerness*. (Forward-moving.)
4. The recent disaster *(it occurred during the past year)* completely discouraged the villagers. (Parenthetical.)

Exercise 1

Classify the clauses in the following sentence, and set off non-essential clauses with commas :

1. It is a great misfortune that your son did not return.
2. These examples which could be multiplied indefinitely will serve to show the application of the law.
3. In 1922 we visited the Panama Canal where we spent several delightful days.
4. The motives that lead to migration consist of the desire to secure one or other of the elements of welfare.
5. Then Rip took his gun and went to the mountains where he drank liquor given him by the dwarfs and slept twenty years.
6. The area of greatest heat is where the largest land masses lie nearest the equator.
7. While her voice had rare carrying power, it was not strident.
8. The great point which supporters of the League of Nations should seek is the establishment of a basis upon which the league can be perfected.
9. The audience gave the speaker a hearty welcome which he greatly appreciated.

CHAPTER FIVE

I. WRITERS' PROGRAMS

During the year you will probably enjoy undertaking to give writers' programs. Perhaps the entire school will join you in the project. If so, the programs may be given at regular intervals on the assembly stage for the entertainment of all the pupils. Here the various kinds of writing which you produce will be presented — stories, poems, original plays, editorials, news articles, etc. If only your own class undertakes the work, you should plan a final "red-letter" program and invite another class to be present. If you prefer, you may invite your parents or friends.

PROJECT V. GIVING A WRITERS' PROGRAM

Planning the Work. With the class as a club and the president presiding, discuss plans for the project. The following questions or similar ones should be considered: When should the program be given? What kinds of writing should be produced? How should the work be criticized and selected for use?

You will doubtless decide that the following kinds of work should be included for the program:

1. Short stories
2. News articles
3. Editorials
4. Poems
5. Original plays
6. Dramatizations of chapters or scenes from books
7. Jokes

Unless the class has a better plan, the president should appoint a separate committee for each of the foregoing types of work. You should hand your work when finished to the chairman of the proper committee. For example, if you write a story, give it to the chairman of the short story committee.

Should the entire school wish to join you in this project, there will probably be a general program committee to whom the class chairmen will hand the work they select.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk in which you state clearly what you expect to write for the program. Tell why you think it will be interesting and give your plan for accomplishing the work.

Writing a Letter. Decide upon a definite date for your writers' program and write a letter inviting a friend to attend. Tell him about your plans and urge him to accept your invitation.

Writing a Short Story. You are already acquainted with the structure of the simple short story. Your attention should, however, be called to the fact that you will find the characters and material for such work in the common things of everyday life. The following story, written by a pupil of the high school, illustrates this point and

will serve as a standard for your writing. Read it carefully at least twice before beginning to write:

A MODERN FAIRY TALE

"Yes," agreed Farmer Corntassel, "I'll sell ye thet ole buzz wagon fur a month's wages. But mind, now, no foolin', nor shirkin'. What the deuce ye want it fur, I can't see."

"Oh, that's all right. Thank you, sir," Jerry replied, with a beautiful future already shining before him. He would now begin his work at once, and by next spring —

It was a beautiful crisp October morning and Jerry went to his corn-cutting in a merry mood. While cutting down the great tall stalks, he was thinking what he could do for a workshop. He was afraid the summer kitchen or the smoke-house would be too small; and there was no way of heating the old woodshed in the dead of winter. However, he would use the old woodshed without any fire till the fall killing was done, and then ask permission to move the stove into the shed.

That evening he made a thorough examination of the "ole buzz wagon" and found that with some repairing the engine might do for a little while.

It was now late in March. Some fearfully and wonderfully made thing was blossoming out in the old woodshed. A peculiar-looking object it was, with a wonderful expanse of wings on each side, propellers behind, and strange-looking boxes and chambers beneath.

"Well, I'll be dogged!" ejected Farmer Corntassel; "what consarned contraption is this?"

"It is," explained Jerry, "an aeroplane, an automobile, and submarine combined in one. It is built for travel in the air, on the earth, and beneath the sea. If I can get a storage battery, it will be completely finished."

May came and found the wonderful invention finished. Alas! Jerry had no money with which to show it, or even to pay the patent attorney's fees.

It was now about the middle of the month. The weather was warm and balmy. There was just enough breeze to be pleasant, and everything was full to the brim with the gladness of spring. To-day was even more balmy than the days gone before, and ideal for any kind of outing.

In fact, this was the very day that Spalding Springs, a summer resort about twelve miles distant, was to be thrown open for the summer.

As he was plowing the corn, poor Jerry saw from a distance the streams of automobiles passing along the road, and noticed two or three aeroplanes winging their way to the Springs for the instruction and entertainment of the crowd. He wished that he himself could go in his new machine and show them what he had; but Farmer Corntassel had said that the corn *must* be plowed.

While stopping to rest a moment and to get a drink, he glanced up on hearing the noise of an engine near by, and saw an aeroplane flying rather close to the ground. It would not have caught his attention so much, probably, had he not observed that its sole occupant was a woman. "How odd!" he said to himself, and did n't give it another thought.

That evening, when he had finished milking the cows, he sat musing over the possibilities of his invention and the impossibilities of his funds. Now if only something would happen as in the fairy tales, how lovely it would be!

Just then he heard a buzz and a whiz, and in the growing dusk he saw something white fluttering down.

"Ah, a fairy! Have I been dreaming?" he exclaimed.

He caught at the bundle of white, and the impact bore both to the ground. He was rather dazed for a little while, and said, "Are you a fairy?"

"A fairy!" she exclaimed icily.

Coming to his senses, he inquired if she wished supper.

"Yes," she answered, "and I want to go home, too."

So she had supper at the farm house and gave the necessary information about herself and where she lived. She appeared to be quite wealthy. Jerry thought, "Here's my chance. Nothing venture, nothing have. I'll take her home in my machine and tell her all about it, and maybe she'll be a sure 'nough fairy." The idea of the thing's failing him, and that it might be a dangerous risk, did not present itself to him.

When they had gone a little way, he said, "Do you know a good proposition when you see it?"

"It depends on the proposition. What sort do you mean?"

"I mean, do you know a money-maker when you see it?"

"A money-making proposition? Why, yes, I've been often

complimented on my business insight. Why? Have you got one?"

"Yes."

"What is it? Let me hear it."

"You're sitting in it this minute."

"Why, this is nothing but an automobile."

"Well, now, that's not all. You see, it is intended to be an automobile, aeroplane, and submarine combined. I can demonstrate it to you right now. We can see; it's moonlight."

So saying, he jumped out, fastened on the wings, and before she could remonstrate that she had had enough flying for that day, they were soaring easily from the ground.

They reached the bungalow safely, and immediately on alighting, the girl, running to meet her mother, told her in an excited manner about the marvelous machine. "And it sure would be a money-maker!" Jerry chimed in with her.

The elderly woman did not seem to catch the enthusiasm of the youthful pair. Jerry, his hopes nipped in the bud, took off the wings and prepared to leave. The fairy, bidding him good-by, admonished, "Have patience! I can work wondrous magic! You will hear from me next week."

Jerry went home, with his hopes revived a little by the girl's farewell. He settled down to finishing the corn-plowing, determined to wait patiently.

Next week came. No answer. The week passed by. Still no word. Jerry grew anxious. Perhaps the "Fairy" was only making sport of him. How foolish he had been! Why should she care about him, or his invention? He would think no more about it.

Still, as time went on, Jerry could not settle down. Farmer Corntassel scolded him incessantly. Everything looked blue. The merriment of the birds and the beauty of the June landscape only mocked his unhappiness and his fretting with fate. "I'll never believe in fairies again," he thought.

But he had misjudged the fairy, for one day an automobile drove up to Farmer Corntassel's gate, and who should alight but Jerry's fairy! After her came a couple of very scientific-looking men.

"Now, may we see you demonstrate your machine?" they asked.

Jerry did show its flying capabilities satisfactorily, and the

two gentlemen then signified their intention of shipping it to a station on the coast for further demonstration.

"Ah!" declared the happy Jerry, "I knew you 'd turn out to be a sure 'nough good fairy!"

Select a suitable subject and write a story similar to the foregoing. When you have made the best effort possible to produce an interesting one, hand it to the chairman of the proper committee or to your teacher.

Talk to the Class. Read carefully the newspapers and prepare to re-tell a news article. Carefully note all the facts and arrange your paragraphs so that your audience will be interested in the very first statements you make.

Writing a News Article. You have perhaps noticed that the titles of news articles are often printed in large and very bold type so as to attract attention. Such titles are called "headlines." They are short expressions that convey as much meaning as possible. The opening paragraph is sometimes set in bold type somewhat smaller than the headline.

Using the following article written by a pupil of the high school as a model, write a news article. Select some event from your school activities — athletics, club work, assembly programs, etc.

OUR TRACK CHAMPIONSHIP

FIELD DAY was Soldan's Day. All Soldan, filled with hopes and thrills, gathered in the stadium at Francis Field. Soon after the 100-yard dash all the stands knew that the meet was to be a scrap to the finish.

On that day we saw more truly than ever before what Soldan spirit means. Many a Soldan boy who had run his best gave one last spurt and ran his heart out for Soldan. If at any time

a Soldan man had fallen down, we would have lost the meet. It was a fight between Soldan, Cleveland, and McKinley from start to finish. While every man on the team showed that he didn't know the meaning of yellowness, here are a few instances of pure grit:

At the crack of the pistol, when the 440 started, the stands rose and watched with their hearts in their mouths. We watched to the 400-yard mark, then saw that last 50-yard, man-killing spurt. We saw Tom Hennings fall back to third place, and in an attempt to gain second place, leap three yards in the air, and fall in an exhausted heap. That is Soldan grit. Then Tom came back and with bruised and bleeding shins hung up a new 880 record.

Clarence Stephenson made one of the grittiest fights in a pole vault ever witnessed. When so exhausted he could hardly stand, he pulled himself together, made one last try, and hung up a new record — for Soldan.

Our relay team was all scrap. Linn Meyer, running against one of the fastest groups of 220 men in high-school circles, led off in second place. When Bob Emrick was tagged off by Meyer, the first man had a five-yard lead. Bob, running as he never did before, gained back the five and gave Rubicam some four yards' lead. Rube took it up, and tagged Wilson off with ten long yards to the good, which Blake never lost.

Then came the Junior pole vault. On that rested the fate of the meet. Either Soldan, Cleveland, or McKinley might win if they won the pole vault. The people poured out of the stands and gathered round to watch the youngsters fight. Our hopes rested on Jimmie Wilson; it was the first time he had ever appeared in a high-school meet, and Soldan's winning or losing depended on him. But Jimmie was there with the grit. Fighting on when absolutely done up, he tied for first place.

Soldan won, and we are proud of every man who wore Soldan's colors on Field Day — Soldan's Day.

Written English. Write an interesting news article on one of the following incidents from Julius Caesar, supposing it to have happened yesterday:

1. Caesar foully assassinated
2. Antony in a stirring address at Caesar's funeral

3. Caesar's will made public
4. War declared
5. Brutus commits suicide

Talk to the Class. Prepare a two-minute talk to the class in which you state your opinion about some important matter before your school. The following topics are merely suggestive :

1. The need for better order in the lunch-room
2. Living up to our school's motto
3. Has our school done its best in athletics?
4. A new honor
5. Greater courtesy toward visitors

Writing an Editorial. Write in clear, forcible English your opinion on some issue affecting your school, your city, or your state. Perhaps you will find it less difficult to confine your effort to one of the school's activities or to your opportunities for amusement and recreation in your own neighborhood. Before beginning to write be sure that there is an issue at stake. Try definitely to express an opinion about it and to convince others to think as you do.

The following example was written by a high-school pupil. Note that it fulfills the requirement of a good editorial :

THE PART-SCHOOL AUDITORIUM SESSIONS

Since our last entire-school auditorium session more than a few people have been thinking deeply upon the question which is now before the school, and will remain so until we can prove to the Principal that we are capable of conducting ourselves creditably as a body in a session of this kind.

Until last year the school had always met as a body and misconduct was a thing unheard of. Our balcony was in the same place where it is now and just as many people had to sit under it, but whether the people were older and more able to control

themselves or whether they had more school pride is a question for us to answer.

It is perfectly obvious that the present arrangement is not satisfactory in any way. The order is better only because there are fewer people to watch; the spirit has not been changed, and, as usual, the many are suffering for the few. Some people are going to auditorium meetings every time there is a session, while others have not attended this term.

Are we going to let a small group of thoughtless people spoil the meetings which have heretofore been an inspiration to the entire school?

Everybody take hold!

Writing a Play. Sketch briefly an idea for a short original play. Decide upon the number of characters and scenes you will need; then prepare the speeches for each. It will not be necessary to use quotation marks for the dialogue. Merely set down the name of the speaker and follow it with the statements which he makes.

Dramatization. Dramatize one or more scenes from the life of Lincoln or some other historical character. If you prefer, you may prepare a simple pageant to represent important events in the history of your city or state.

Writing a Poem. Using models found in newspapers and magazines, write a simple poem concerning characters or incidents of interest in your books or in the life of the school.

Talk to the Class. Prepare a simple after-dinner speech in which you tell a humorous story or a joke.

Giving the Writers' Program. When the work for the program is ready, each pupil should read his story or article before the entire assembly of students or before his class and any visitors who may be invited. Plays should be acted and music should be

furnished by certain pupils who are gifted in this kind of work.

II. VARIETY OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Perhaps you have already tried hard to write interesting themes, but have not succeeded well. You have chosen appropriate subjects, carefully selected your details, added the dramatic element as far as possible, and employed good language; still you feel that there is something more needed to make your work really interesting and attractive. Let us try the form, or structure, of your sentences. If you will turn to your last theme again, you will no doubt be surprised to find that your sentences almost all begin and end in the same way. In other words you will find that there is not enough variety in their beginnings and endings. How many of your sentences begin with phrases or clauses? How many are complex sentences? Does any one of them hold the reader in suspense for the thought till the end?

After you have examined your theme in this way, rewrite it, being careful to begin some of your sentences with phrases or clauses.

Variety in Beginnings. Variety in beginnings may be secured by placing a phrase or clause first in the sentence. The phrase may be a prepositional, a participial, or an infinitive phrase.

The following sentences begin with phrases :

1. *In the afternoon of the first day* our car broke down and we were compelled to stay for several hours in a small village.
2. *Running down the alley to the next street*, William hid himself in the crowd and thus avoided an unpleasant meeting with the policeman.

3. *To tell the truth*, I was greatly ashamed of my first effort to speak before the class.

The use of the complex sentence will furnish an excellent opportunity to write sentences beginning with a clause. When the clause is made to stand first, the sentence is also made more emphatic. Notice that the following begin with clauses :

1. *When we reached the river* it began to rain very hard.
2. *Although we were sorry to leave camp*, we were glad to reach home.
3. *Since you were eager to enter the contest*, you should do your best to win.

If you will examine some of your earlier themes, you will perhaps find many short simple sentences. No doubt some of them are closely related and can easily be combined into complex or compound sentences. It is well, however, not to fall into the habit of making too many of them compound. Let us take a series of short statements and see how they may be united to make up a more complex form. "Last summer I went to visit my uncle. He lives on a farm. The farm is near Alton." If you will notice carefully, you will find that the main idea is contained in the first statement and that the other two are less important. We may, therefore, combine them as follows: "Last summer I went to visit my uncle who lives on a farm near Alton." This arrangement gives both variety and strength of expression.

Variety in Endings. Heretofore you have paid little attention to sentence endings. You will readily see that all your sentences should not end alike. Sometimes it is well to have a complex sen-

tence end with a subordinate clause, bearing in mind the fact that more often the clause should stand first. Occasionally a participial phrase may also stand last — thus: “Charles ran at top speed to the back part of the field, caught the ball, and put out the third man, *thus saving the game for our team.*”

Again, both variety and emphasis may be secured by holding the thought till the end of the sentence — thus: “In energy, in strength, in courage, in fact in every respect, *the American soldier excels all others.*” Observe that the reader’s attention is held in suspense till the end. Such a sentence is sometimes called a *periodic sentence*, but to be able to use this kind is more important than to remember its name. In your written work try to write some sentences of this kind.

Read carefully the pupil’s theme that follows. Observe that the writer has secured some variety of expression, especially in sentence beginnings.

A DAY ON THE MISSISSIPPI

One beautiful summer morning about eight-thirty o’clock, we started out for a trip on the steamer St. Paul. It was a long car-ride to the dock, but we were so delighted to go that we did not mind that. When we reached the dock, we saw a great crowd waiting for friends or relatives to come. After Father had purchased the tickets, we went on board and secured rocking chairs and a table. About half past nine the steamer gave its last whistle and began to pull away from the dock, leaving behind several persons who had intended to go.

Up the broad Mississippi the vessel glided along, passing the Burlington Elevator and several other large buildings. In a short time the forenoon passed and it was time for lunch. How delightful it was to eat on board the boat! About one o’clock we reached Alton, where several persons got off and others came on board.

Up the river we went, passing now a factory, now a church and the Court House of Alton. *About half a mile from Chautauqua* we saw two islands in the river on which carpenters were building a house. Some friends of the Captain asked to be let off here, as they wished to transact business with the owner. Accordingly the boat landed, and the men got off. *When it began to back out, however,* it ran upon a sand bar. The Captain tried many ways to get the vessel off, but it seemed that nothing would succeed.

"We'll have to drift out slowly," the Captain said. "There's no other way."

Just then the orchestra came to our relief, playing "There's no place like home" and "I won't go home till morning." *After about two hours of waiting* the boat began to drift away from the sandbar, and in a few minutes we were off for home. We reached Alton late in the evening. At this point it was great fun to watch the river bridge open as the boat came near it. *When we reached the Chain of Rocks,* a terrific rain storm came up. The boat quickened its speed, however, and in a few minutes we reached St. Louis. *Then, very tired and wet,* we sought a street car and hastened home.

Condensation of Clauses. Variety of expression may be secured through condensation of clauses. Often the thought may be expressed equally well by a phrase or by an adjective or an adverb. Note the clauses in the following sentences :

1. A theme *that is carefully written* should be interesting.
2. A man *who is loyal* will not speak slightly of his country.
3. *While these things were happening,* I was busy reading the paper.
4. The tree *which stands in the yard* has been trimmed.

By condensing the clauses we secure the following :

1. A *carefully written* theme should be interesting.
2. A *loyal* man will not speak slightly of his country.
3. *In the meantime,* I was busy reading the paper.
4. The tree *in the yard* has been trimmed.

Sometimes a clause can be condensed to a participial or an infinitive phrase. Note the clauses in the following sentences :

1. The boy *who was kept for punishment* had not studied his lesson.
2. He went to the war *in order that he might show his courage*.

These may be expressed thus :

1. The boy *kept for punishment* had not studied his lesson.
2. He went to the war *to show his courage*.

Exercise 1

Condense the clauses in the following sentences wherever possible :

1. The boy who is well educated should be able to obtain a position that is desirable.
2. To begin with, his appearance, which was pleasing, won the sympathy of the audience.
3. Water that is drawn from an impure source should not be used.
4. Those who were to speak took their places on the platform.
5. The World War caused sorrow that cannot be described.
6. The officers caused the prisoner to pass through an ordeal that was very trying.
7. In all your written work try to avoid mistakes that are crude.
8. Everybody was greatly moved by what he said.
9. Lincoln was not praised by all who lived in his time.
10. A population that is distinctly rural would not likely be interested in the affairs of people who live in the city.
11. The house that stands on the corner was built by an early settler.
12. When I had been there but a short time, I heard a cry of distress.
13. Do you know what Charles intends to do ?
14. Any one can easily secure a patent for a device that saves labor.

15. The man who is afraid of danger should not venture to the top of the peak.
16. Before the sun rose that day, he had finished his work.
17. If those who are to take part in the debate will give me their names, I will arrange the program.
18. Not far distant you will find the place where the roads cross.
19. The positions that people desire most are the hardest to obtain.
20. We were ordered to employ the attorney that was most popular in his community.

Expansion of Verbals and Verb Phrases. Variety of expression may also be secured through the expansion of verbals and phrases. Sometimes the thought of a participial or an infinitive phrase can be expressed just as well in the form of a clause. Notice the verbals and phrases in the following sentences :

1. The child was sent to the city *to visit his uncle*.
2. *Being determined to succeed*, he studied very hard.
3. *Having finished his work*, he decided to go to the show.
4. *Running toward the man*, the dog seized him by the leg.

By expanding these expressions we obtain the following :

1. The child was sent to the city *in order that he might visit his uncle*.
2. He studied very hard, *for he was determined to succeed*.
3. *When he had finished his work*, he decided to go to the show.
4. *The dog ran toward the man* and seized him by the leg.

Exercise 2

Substitute clauses for verbals and phrases in the following sentences :

1. A crowd of children went to the park to see the game.
2. Bringing his gun to the door, he set it down and entered the room.

3. The officer did this to advance his own interests.
4. The door being closed, we could do nothing but wait outside.
5. The prisoner ran into an alley, disappearing behind a tall building.
6. The train having arrived, we met our friends and escorted them to our new home.
7. Having enjoyed the study of civics, the pupils eagerly took up the work in vocations.
8. Many had gathered at the old hotel to get a glimpse of the former president.
9. Speaking for myself, I think this program has proved very inspiring.
10. The king having fled, greedy politicians took the management of affairs in their own hands.
11. The defeated candidate declared his intention of seeking the office again.
12. Being disappointed with the progress of the work, the manager discharged some of his employees.
13. A great quantity of wheat kept in granaries for a long time was now put upon the market.
14. By doing his work well the boy hoped to succeed.
15. Having entered the contest to win, our team did not give over the struggle till late in the afternoon.

CHAPTER SIX

I. THE SCHOOL PAPER AGAIN

The school paper is one of the larger projects to which you should turn again and again to find occasions for speaking and writing. In the event that you have none, your class can prepare a magazine, which will serve the purpose almost equally well.

In your previous work on the paper or class magazine, you have given your attention chiefly to narrative writing. There are, however, many cases in which word pictures, or descriptions, must be used. For example, in almost every story it is necessary to describe at least briefly the characters and scenes, and in an account of a game or an entertainment description must often be combined with narration. It should, therefore, be interesting to find out just how to use description effectively in preparing articles and stories for the school paper or the class magazine.

PROJECT VI. PREPARING DESCRIPTIVE MATERIAL FOR THE SCHOOL PAPER

Planning the Work. The president of the English club should appoint committees to find out to what extent description is used in each of the following,

and to bring to the class and read suitable illustrations. The committees should begin work at once :

1. Stories and incidents
2. Advertisements in magazines, automobile books, newspapers, etc.
3. Letters of travel
4. Sales letters

If an editor has not been already elected to represent you and to see that interesting material reaches the paper, one should now be chosen. He will choose three or four other pupils to serve with him as an editorial committee. Your written work should be submitted to them for acceptance. The members will probably ask that the best articles be read to the club. If you have no school paper, the committee should put together several of the best in the form of a magazine and direct that it be read to the class, or club.

Essentials of a Good Description. Before beginning the work of this project, study carefully the following discussion :

In the beginning it is necessary that the writer state the first impression of the object. This should be the picture of the whole object about as it would appear to the observer. The first sentence or two should generally be devoted to this purpose. The following is a good example of a first general impression : " His schoolhouse was a low building of one large room, rudely constructed of logs, the windows partly glazed and partly patched with leaves of old copy books."

The writer should describe an object as it appears to him from his place of observation. He should state the place of view near the beginning. A

little later he may omit it, but must always keep it in mind. Often it occurs in the first sentence and in a single phrase or two. The following is a clearly stated point of view: "*Looking down the valley from Point Lookout*, one can see many small divisions of land, in appearance like so many flower gardens." If the writer of the foregoing description wishes to change his position, he should tell the reader. He would perhaps make a statement somewhat like this: "Passing down the mountain side and walking a mile nearer, one sees the apparent gardens open into broad fields."

Having made a suitable beginning, the writer should now turn to the selection of details. Only those should be selected that can be seen from his point of observation, and even all these need not be mentioned in the theme. The most striking details, however, and as many others as seem necessary to a complete picture ought to be retained. Many things may be safely left to the reader's imagination.

Read carefully the following personal description:

"Cyclamen Dent was admittedly the belle of Seriph Four Corners; she was tall and slender and languid and blond. Her soft, velvety, white skin had no color anywhere except where it came to full bloom in a mouth like an opening rose. Her hair — a gauzy, golden tangle — veiled, as in a mist, this pearly whiteness; her eyelashes — several degrees darker than her hair — dropped elfin reflections on it. Back of the tangled lashes and tangled reflections, her eyes were but a blue shimmer. Cyclamen was a real beauty. When she entered the room, she put the other women out, as a hurricane would extinguish a candle."

Notice that the writer has followed the order of observation. After giving a general impression of the person, she passes to her mouth, hair, and eyes.

Something more than mere details are given toward the close. In almost all descriptions of persons in literature, suggestions of movements and character may be found. If the writer wishes to succeed, he must learn to give individuality to his descriptions.

As we have already learned, description rarely exists for its own sake, but is generally introduced into stories for a definite purpose. The ordinary detached description lacks interest and requires something more than mere details. It is possible, however, to make it interesting by adding narration. You have seen that in narration we have characters who act and speak and that what they do and say interests us. Nothing is easier than to introduce one or more characters into description and, in a sense, make a moving picture. To begin with, try writing about yourself. Notice what one pupil accomplished in this way in the following theme :

A SCENE FROM MY WINDOW

Tired of reading, I carelessly flung my book on the bed, and sat looking out of my study-room window, which faced the street. As I sat there "day-dreaming" and looking at nothing in particular, I was awakened from my reverie by the sound of children's voices. Glancing down, I saw four little boys about seven or eight years of age, playing ball. The youngest and smallest one happened to miss the ball and ran down the terrace and into the street after it without looking in either direction. Just then a large automobile came racing down the street, and the child, not noticing the car, slowly picked up the ball. At that moment the driver saw the child and sounded the horn, which seemed to frighten the boy so much that he could not move. In an instant, the driver threw on the brakes, but owing to the high speed of the car, could not stop.

From the window I witnessed all this — the child, the oncoming car, and the effort to stop it. I sat there terrified —

too frightened to call or even move. Suddenly, the day which seemed so bright turned into night and in my ears sounded the buzzing of a thousand bees. Through the awful buzzing there came the shrill scream of a child and I knew no more. Some minutes later my eyes opened and my mother was standing by the bed where she had placed me when she found me unconscious.

"Is he hurt? Is he — is — he — dead?" At last I got the words out of my mouth. The answer to my question was that the driver had succeeded in slowing down his car so that it only knocked the little boy down and bruised him slightly. — P. M.

While not essential, it adds greatly to the effectiveness of description to use simple figures of speech — pictorial language. Often a single striking comparison or contrast will serve to produce almost a perfect picture. Note the following comparison, or simile, taken from Stevenson's *Treasure Island*: "I stood straight up against the wall, my heart still going like a sledge hammer, but with a ray of hope now shining in my bosom." Sometimes a suggested comparison, or metaphor, will serve the purpose even better — thus: "In the near distance Lake Wettern was gleaming, a great mirror in the light of the dying sun." Again, personification will add vividness — for example, this one from Lowell:

"The river was numb and could not speak,
For the weaver Winter its shroud had spun."

In your descriptive work, try to form the habit of using these figures of speech. Your first efforts may perhaps be crude, but you will soon acquire the ability to employ them.

Talk to the English Club. Prepare a short talk in which you describe one of the following. Try to observe the suggestions given in the foregoing dis-

cussion. When you have finished, the club will criticize your work.

1. An impressive public building, such as the local post office or one of the churches
2. A boy scout's tent
3. The most beautiful landscape you have ever seen
4. A ruined house
5. Our city park

Written English. Write a description of one of the subjects mentioned above. Make your work interesting by the use of specific language and pictorial expressions.

Talk to the English Club. After reading a description from Stevenson, Scott, Irving, or Hawthorne to serve as a guide, select one of the following subjects and write a description :

1. A queer old man I know
2. A boy scout whom I admire
3. A tramp
4. My favorite portrait
5. Our postman
6. Our rural mail carrier
7. My little brother
8. A stranger
9. Our minister
10. The handsomest person I know

Written English. Select one of the foregoing subjects and write a description. Try to secure variety of sentence structure and to employ specific language.

Reports of Committees. The various committees appointed earlier in the work of the project should now be asked to report orally. The president of the English club should call on each chairman to address

the meeting and to read samples of descriptions which his committee has collected. The club should discuss any of these that seem to deserve comment. You should find this exercise very helpful in your work.

Talk to the English Club. Prepare a talk on one of the following subjects. Oral description should serve the double purpose of training the power of observation and of furnishing pleasure and entertainment for the class. Interest centers chiefly in persons and places. Everyone is interested in important places that he has not had an opportunity to visit. If you have visited the Yellowstone National Park, you should tell your experience to the class. Many have not had the pleasure of seeing it and will be anxious to have you describe your visit. They will want to know all the details of interest. Or it may be that you have seen some notable person — for example, a great actor or actress, a prize fighter, an inventor, a general, or an ex-President. Remember that you must make your hearers see the picture as clearly as you see it yourself. Prepare for this recitation as carefully as for a written one.

1. A day in the Yellowstone Park
2. Seeing Niagara Falls
3. A trip to Mt. Vernon, the home of Washington
4. A day in New York
5. Interesting places in and about St. Louis
6. In Mammoth Cave
7. In the Rockies
8. A visit to a soldiers' camp
9. A day at the State fair
10. Our State university buildings
11. A week in Atlantic City

12. A visit to a factory
13. Down the river in a house-boat
14. Seeing Chicago
15. A visit to Lincoln's home in Springfield
16. Lincoln's monument
17. On a famous battlefield
18. A great circus
19. Seeing the cotton fields of the South
20. A day on Lookout Mountain, Tennessee
21. What I saw at Asheville, North Carolina

Written English. Choose a subject similar to the foregoing and write an interesting description. It is best to describe a place you have actually seen. Submit your work to the class editor or to the teacher.

Writing a Letter. Imagine that you are again on a trip to some distant place, perhaps one mentioned above, and write a letter to a friend describing some of the interesting scenes you have visited.

Written English. Describe one of the following interesting people :

1. A distinguished speaker at one of your auditorium sessions
2. A great general
3. My favorite actress
4. My favorite football star
5. Roosevelt in khaki
6. President Harding
7. One of your teachers
8. A clown

Talk to the English Club. Prepare a talk designed to increase the number of subscriptions for the school paper. Describe the paper from the point of view of the reader — that is, keep in mind what he likes and what he will be willing to pay for. In case your school does not have a paper,

make a similar talk in which you try to sell tickets, thrift stamps, or other articles.

Written English. Write an imaginative description on some subject such as one of the following :

1. A trip in a submarine
2. Over the city in an airplane
3. Our city twenty years from now
4. A night in a haunted house
5. Our high school fifty years hence

Giving a Program. If the best descriptions have not already been selected, this should now be done. The class, or club, should give a program at which these productions should be read. If the editor or other pupils have already read some of them, it will be advisable to omit such from the program.

II. CLEARNESS THROUGH THE USE OF CONNECTIVES AND ADVERBS

If you will turn to some of your earlier themes and re-read them, you will observe a sort of "choppiness" of style. This is due to the fact that you have used the same connectives repeatedly or have failed to use them at all. Perhaps you will find that your vocabulary includes only *and*, *but*, and *and so*. If this is the case, you should learn to use many others. In this section you will find lists of connectives which you should carefully learn. In your next themes try hard to secure smoothness of style and variety in the use of connectives. Some of the words are adverbs, but they rightly belong here as variants.

The following words are used by way of transition in leaving one expression or thought and passing to

another of like kind: *and, too, also, besides, moreover, furthermore, likewise, in addition to, and in like manner.* *Moreover, furthermore, and besides* call attention to something in addition to what has already been said. *Likewise* should generally be used in the sense of *in like manner*.

The following words are used in an adversative sense to indicate that the expression or thought that follows is opposed to that which precedes it: *but, still, yet, however, nevertheless, at least, in spite of, for all that, and notwithstanding.* Aside from *but, however* is the most serviceable in the list. Its meaning is so elementary that it scarcely needs explanation. Perhaps it is sufficient to say that it should be used to express a decision made in spite of what has already been stated — as, “His answer, *however*, is unsatisfactory.” *Yet* and *nevertheless* are used to indicate that all concessions have been made, but that they do not change the question or situation — “William has always been obedient; *nevertheless* I shall punish him for tardiness.”

The words included in the next list are used to denote an inference or conclusion: *then, so, thus, accordingly, consequently, and therefore.* *Then* and *so* are much less formal than *therefore*. *Therefore* is generally used in precise and formal reasoning to denote a direct conclusion. *Consequently* indicates the result of a previous statement or statements — as, “The manager was dishonest; *consequently* he was discharged.” *Accordingly* should be used largely in story-telling, or narration.

The following words, most of which are adverbs, need very little explanation: *then, presently, eventually, thereupon, thereafter, before long, after that, in*

the meantime, to conclude, and the like. They are used chiefly in story-telling. Try to form the habit of using them.

A paragraph from *Treasure Island* will show how some of these connectives may be used to advantage :

Pew was dead, stone dead. As for my mother, when we had carried her up to the hamlet, a little cold water and salts and that soon brought her back again, *and* she was none the worse for her terror, though she still continued to deplore the balance of the money. *In the meantime* the supervisor rode on, as fast as he could to Kitt's Hole ; *but* his men had to dismount and grope down the dingle, leading, and sometimes supporting their horses, and in continual fear of ambushes ; *so* it was no great matter for surprise that when they got down to the Hole the lugger was already under way, though still close in. He hailed her. A voice replied, telling him to keep out of the moonlight, or he would get some lead in him, and *at the same time* a bullet whistled close by his arm. Soon after, the lugger doubled the point and disappeared. Mr. Dance stood there, as he said, "Like a fish out of water," and all he could do was to dispatch a man to B — to warn the cutter. "And that," said he, "is just about as good as nothing. They've got off clean, and there's an end. Only," he added, "I'm glad I trod on Master Pew's corns"; for by this time he had heard my story. — STEVENSON.

Exercise 1

Choose one of the following subjects or a similar one and prepare a talk to be given before the class. Try especially to avoid the *and* and *and so* habit by making use of some of the various connectives and adverbs given in the foregoing lists. Think your story through carefully; then try using various connectives where they are needed.

The subjects listed here are intended to be merely suggestive :

1. An exciting ride
2. Why I nursed a grudge

3. A keen disappointment
4. A ghost story
5. Helen's triumph
6. A joke on the minister
7. A noble deed
8. A day with the Boy Scouts or the Camp Fire Girls
9. The best story I ever read
10. A Hallowe'en prank

Exercise 2

Select a subject similar to those given above and write a theme. First make a rough copy and underline your connectives. Before making your finished copy, go over your work carefully and determine whether you have used enough of the various connectives and whether you have made a fortunate choice in each case. Try especially hard to find the most appropriate one for each place.

Exercise 3

Select a suitable subject for an argument or for an explanation of an opinion or process. Write a rough copy in which you use some of the following connectives: *so*, *then*, *hence*, and *therefore*. Before making the finished copy, read your work over carefully to determine whether you have used the proper connectives.

The following subjects or similar ones may be used :

1. Our community needs a new school building.
2. Literary societies and other clubs should meet during school hours.
3. *Treasure Island* is more interesting than *Ivanhoe*.
4. Should every boy be taught a trade?

5. How to raise hogs for profit
6. How to prepare the soil for a garden
7. How I can help my school
8. How to arrange the kitchen
9. How to make candy
10. What it means to be a spendthrift
11. The cost of smoking
12. What school "spirit" means

CHAPTER SEVEN

I. A SCHOOL DEBATE

In everyday life you will be called on frequently to express your opinions on public questions. You will wish to convince others that your position is correct. Indeed while yet in school you will find it necessary to discuss many important propositions. You will enjoy debating some of them with other classes or with members of your own class. This will not only prove interesting but furnish excellent training in speaking.

PROJECT VII. HOLDING A PUBLIC DEBATE

Planning the Work. In a business meeting of the English club, you may propose that a debate be held with another class or between members of your own. Even though the club should decide to challenge another group, it will be necessary to hold a practice debate within your own class. However, in this case, preparations may be less formal than for one to be held with another class or with a society. The first thing that should be done is to select two or three debaters to represent each side of the question. Should it be decided that a large number participate, only two or three minutes can be given to each speaker. In the class debate those not taking part may be chosen as judges, or only

three of them may be selected for this purpose. Sometimes it is well to invite three visitors to act as judges. Next, an interesting question should be selected — one that comes as close as possible to student life. Below are given a number of suggestive ones. Select one and prepare to speak for or against it :

1. Should a boy or girl join more than one school club?
2. Is athletics as important as other school subjects?
3. Should punishment for tardiness be abolished?
4. Term examinations should be abolished.
5. Our government should provide old-age pensions.
6. Should the school term be made shorter?

If the debate is to be held with another class, or with a literary society, it will be necessary for the secretary to send a challenge. This may be made an exercise in letter writing, and every pupil should be given a chance to write a letter. The best one of these, or all of them, may be sent. The letter should state the question proposed for debate and the arrangements for the meeting. It should also suggest a committee meeting for the purpose of working out the details of the plan.

Some Needed Explanation. The subject for the debate is called the *proposition* or *question*. It may take the form of either a statement or a question. The two sides are designated the *affirmative* and the *negative*. The affirmative speakers argue that the proposition is true; the negative, that it is not true. The debaters on the same side refer to one another as *colleagues*, but call the members of the other side their *opponents*. It is not considered proper to refer to a colleague or an opponent by name. When a speaker offers an argument to dis-

prove what his opponent has stated, he makes use of *refutation* or *rebuttal*. Sometimes a speaker asserts a thing as true, but neglects to offer any proof to support it. This is called *begging the question*. The first affirmative speaker opens and closes the debate. He should state the question clearly and explain its meaning. The order in which the speakers should appear is as follows: First speaker on the affirmative, first speaker on the negative, second speaker on the affirmative, second speaker on the negative, closing speech for the negative, closing speech for the affirmative. If the first negative speaker is not to appear for a closing speech, care should be taken to place the best speaker last on the negative side.

The success of the debate depends largely upon the interest and enthusiasm of the debaters. An interested debater will never fail to prepare his speech. He will have something to say and his points will have weight. This does not imply that he will commit to memory what he wishes to say, but it does mean that he should prepare an outline or, better still, a brief. A *brief* is an outline in which all points and sub-points are stated in the form of a sentence. The following is an illustration of one prepared for the affirmative side of the question, "Should our school organize a students' council?"

AFFIRMATIVE BRIEF

I. INTRODUCTION

1. The need of practical training for citizenship has aroused much interest in school councils and clubs as a means of teaching public service.
2. A student council is a body of representatives chosen usually from the different rooms or classes of a school.

It elects its own officers and has its own committees. It plans and carries on its work with as little direction as possible from the principal or teachers. The action of the council, however, is subject to the approval of the principal.

II. BRIEF PROPER

Our school should organize a students' council, for —

1. An organization of this kind has for its purpose the advancement of the welfare of the school and the community.
2. It provides the best means of teaching citizenship, for —
 - (1) It engages pupils in campaigns of service — such as :
 - a. "Safety First"
 - b. Cleaner school grounds
 - c. Better order in the lunchroom
 - d. Better order on the playgrounds
 - e. Helping the school paper
 - f. Better athletics
3. It provides the means of developing initiative and leadership, for —
 - (1) It gives pupils an opportunity to plan and to carry out useful work for the school and the community.
4. It provides also the means of developing coöperation and self-control, for —
 - (1) It gives pupils a chance to work with one another and for one another in natural situations.
5. Other schools have tried the experiment and have found it successful.
 - (1) The Blewett Junior High School, the Blair School, and others in St. Louis have organizations of this kind.
 - (2) Many schools in Chicago, New York, and other cities have students' councils.

III. CONCLUSION

Since I have shown that a students' council will advance the welfare of the school and the community, provide the means of teaching citizenship in a practical way, and develop leadership, initiative, coöperation, and self-control,

I maintain that our school should have an organization of this kind.

Talk to the English Club. Prepare a list of three or four suitable questions for debate. When the president of the club calls the meeting to order, stand and say: "Mr. Chairman, I wish to read several questions for debate." Briefly comment on the merits of each and state which you prefer. At the close of the exercise, the club should select a list of five of the best questions for debate.

Written English. Select one of the following questions and prepare a brief of what you would say about it:

1. Should the school undertake charitable work?
2. Can one succeed in life with only a grammar-school education?
3. Should capital punishment be abolished?
4. Should a pupil be expelled from school for cheating?
5. Should the school furnish free textbooks?
6. Should we adopt student government?
7. Our school should organize a glee club instead of a debating society.
8. There should be a student court to settle difficulties between pupils.
9. Monday is a better holiday than Saturday.
10. The city should own and operate the street railways.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to another class challenging them to debate with you. Suggest two or three suitable questions from the list you have already prepared. The best letter should be sent.

Talk to the English Class. Consult several debater's handbooks which may be found in your school library or in the public library and make a list of rules for the conduct of a debate. In a two-minute talk to the class, present these in a way that

all will understand them. The following points are suggestive :

When a formal debate is given, there must be a presiding officer, who is called the chairman. If the debate is given by the class, the president, of course, will preside ; but if not, a chairman must be agreed upon. Next, both sides should agree on three persons to act as judges, and, last of all, the time to be given to each speaker must be determined. Each speaker rises when his name is called and addresses the chair as *Mr. President*, or *Mr. Chairman*, and the judges as *Honorable Judges*. Then he should address his audience as *Ladies and Gentlemen*. In the course of his address every speaker should be kind and courteous. In order that he may make a strong closing impression he should reserve his most important point for his last argument. However, he should make every statement as strong and effective as possible. He should not say " I think " or " I suppose ", for these expressions weaken his arguments. On the other hand he should not be so over-positive that he will offend. The successful speaker must, therefore, avoid such expressions as " Anybody knows that's not true ", " That is not true ", and " My opponent has n't kept to the truth."

Perhaps the most important thing remains to be said — namely, a debater or speaker should always look pleasant and speak distinctly. This much is always due the audience.

Holding a Practice Debate. If your class or club has arranged to debate against another team, you should hold a practice debate. Every member should speak either on the affirmative or negative

side of the question. The club should offer helpful criticisms, and when all have spoken, choose four or five speakers. These will represent your class or club. If it should be decided not to debate against another class, two teams may be selected from the best speakers in your own and a debate given before your parents or other visitors whom you may invite.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter inviting a friend to attend your debate.

Giving the Debate. The president of the English club will invite some one from the opposing class to preside and should see to it that the debate is conducted according to established rules.

II. INTERRUPTIONS OF THE GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE AND SEQUENCE

Whenever words, phrases, or clauses are thrown in loosely between the subject and predicate, or between the predicate and the object or the predicate noun, the grammatical order, or sequence, is interrupted. Some of the interruptions are due to the use of independent elements — for example, words or phrases in apposition, nouns in address, and the absolute phrase. You will recall that such expressions are set off by commas, because the looseness of their attachment requires it. You will now learn how words, phrases, and even clauses may be thrust loosely into the sentences. Expressions so used and often considered non-essential are called *parenthetical expressions*.

Parenthetical Expressions. There is a large group of words which are frequently used parenthetically. Among its members are the following: *also, too, indeed, however, nevertheless, again, secondly, namely, moreover, and consequently*. These words are generally used as adverbs. They often modify the entire assertion in a very loose manner and in such cases are properly called independent adverbs. In such constructions they are set off by a comma — thus: “*However*, the girl’s mother sought revenge.” Sometimes, however, these words modify directly and closely some element in the sentence — for example, “*However* good he may be, he cannot secure the position.” Here *however* modifies *good* in a very direct way and should not be set off. The words of this group do not always occur at the beginning of a sentence or an independent clause but often come within it. When they are thus thrown in loosely, they are considered parenthetical and are set off by commas. Note carefully the following illustrations:

1. There are, *however*, two men on this jury who are honest.
2. The Russians, *nevertheless*, broke their promises to the allies.
3. Then, *too*, we could find no other guide.
4. There were two generals — *namely*, Grant and Sherman — whom the North could trust to win the war.
5. It resulted, *consequently*, as we had anticipated.

A large group of short adverbial phrases, corresponding somewhat closely to the members of the above named group, may be used parenthetically. Some of these phrases are the following: *in short, in fact, no doubt, of course, in truth, for instance, for example, so to speak, for the time being, after all, by the way, and in the first place*. If these phrases

stand at the beginning of independent clauses, but one comma is necessary to set them off — thus :

1. *After all*, how can one be certain that one is right.
2. *In truth*, I cannot tell how long peace will last.

If they come within the sentence, they are set off by commas — thus :

1. It is, *of course*, a fact that the engineer was to blame for the accident.
2. There is, *no doubt*, a reason for the boy's mistake.
3. These players, *by the way*, are mere amateurs.

Often short clauses are thrown into the sentence in a very loose way. They are generally equivalent to adverbs and adverbial phrases. Such parenthetical clauses are set off by commas — thus :

1. Whittier, *it appears*, had a very hard struggle to secure an education.
2. This great task, *I have no doubt*, will soon be finished.
3. All our efforts, *I am inclined to think*, will be in vain.
4. This government, *you may be sure*, will continue to live.
5. Mr. Harris, *if I may be somewhat personal*, has made a false accusation against me.
6. "I am glad," *said the old man*, "that my son is still alive."

Sometimes dashes are used to set off parenthetical expressions, especially if the author wishes to emphasize them — thus :

I know the overworked person — and most farmers are overworked — will say that it is not fun to work.

Perhaps the greatest interruption in grammatical structure, or thought, is the abrupt change. The writer should always warn the reader of such a break by the use of the dash — thus :

1. Anna is a very good girl — when she is asleep.
2. Sickness, poverty, death — these were some of the enemies our early settlers had to meet.

3. She felt very proud and very — jealous.
4. I — I can't deny the right — but I can't live to say it.
5. If there is nothing else, Mr. Hosey — .
6. And your cousin — what kind of man was he?

You have already seen that words or phrases in apposition with a noun or pronoun are set off by commas, but it frequently happens that such expressions stand last in the sentence. When this is the case, they are set off by a dash — thus :

1. After all, she had given him the one supreme gift — purpose.
2. You have been drafted into the most urgent activity of the war — that of increasing and saving the food supply.
3. Four great nations were fighting the Central Powers — namely, France, Italy, Great Britain and the United States.

Exercise 1

Punctuate the following sentences and give a reason for each mark you insert :

1. So also a road may be built through a man's farm by the county government.
2. If the national government for example wishes to build a post office it may condemn the property of a private citizen.
3. The church it is true can do much to assist the poor.
4. The things that men seek to own books machines houses and the like constitute wealth.
5. Then sir you must answer the charge.
6. Her beautiful gown he had never before seen one so gorgeous fascinated him.
7. The young men of this country I am sure will enlist by the thousands.
8. There are five great American poets namely Bryant Longfellow Whittier Holmes and Lowell.
9. One month seems to me to be especially delightful June.
10. This meeting in fact is a protest against the unequal pay of men and women.

11. When Philip had eaten his lunch just a little bowl of soup he went again to his work.
12. I thanked him for the war trophy which he gave me a genuine trench ring soon to be considered a curio.
13. The stranger could nevertheless see the lights of the village from his hiding-place.
14. In the first place no man should be convicted of crime upon false testimony.
15. You will find all the queer places the places he thought you would want to visit marked in red ink.
16. You can no doubt point out some places of interest to me.
17. His motives too have been questioned.
18. His services and no man's services have been more valuable should not be forgotten.

CHAPTER EIGHT

I. A SALES CAMPAIGN

Everyone should give a great deal of attention to the things that will enable him to succeed in business. Among others he should know how to make an effective sales talk and to write a successful sales letter. He should also learn how to write good adjustment and collection letters. All of these may easily be learned through a sales campaign.

PROJECT VIII. HOLDING A SALES CAMPAIGN

Planning the Work. If you have a school paper, you can plan a campaign to increase its sales, or number of subscriptions. In case you have none, you may imagine that you have, or you may choose something else to sell. Your campaign should be carried on chiefly through sales talks, letters, advertisements, posters, etc. To make your work really effective, you should learn as much as possible about each of these. The president of the English club should appoint committees to investigate and report on the following. In most cases the necessary information can be secured from books on salesmanship, business English, and letter writing. These

works will be found in the school library or the public library :

1. Important topics in salesmanship :
 - (1) How to open a sales talk
 - (2) Importance of knowing the goods
 - (3) How to convince the customer
 - (4) Closing the sale
2. Kinds of letters to be used and how to construct each :
 - (1) Sales letter
 - (2) Adjustment letter
 - (3) Collection letter

The pupil who makes the best sales talk should be invited to repeat it before another class or at a general assembly session. This will increase the sales of the paper and also stimulate others to greater efforts to speak in public. Likewise the best sales and collection letters should be given publicity. These may be sent to the editor, who will gladly post them on the bulletin board or order copies mimeographed for distribution.

Talk to the English Club. With the president or some other member presiding, discuss the foregoing plans. Feel free to suggest changes or additions. Indeed you should work out your own plans as far as possible.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to a leading business house of your city or community asking for the following information in regard to form in letter writing :

1. Do you use the vertical or oblique margin in headings, and addresses — that is, do you indent each item?
2. Do you use punctuation at the end of each line in headings and addresses?
3. Do you indent each line of the envelope address and follow it with end punctuation?

Each pupil should select a different firm so that as many opinions as possible may be obtained. From the answers received, make a set of rules for writing headings and addresses, based on the opinion of the majority. Copy them neatly into your English notebook.

Reports of Committees. The chairman of each committee should now be asked to give an oral report. The important facts presented should be arranged in the form of an outline and copied in your notebook.

Essential Qualities of a Successful Sales Talk. A sales talk should be so constructed as to secure attention, interest, desire, and action. These are sometimes called the steps in the sale. The most important of them, of course, is action — the customer's act of buying. All the others merely lead up to this. Each, however, is important and deserves careful consideration.

Assuming that you have gained an audience with your customer, you must next secure his attention. This may be done through the use of a question, a command, or the statement of an important fact within his experience. You must from the very beginning have the customer's point of view — that is, you must keep in mind what he likes and what he will want. Sometimes attention can best be secured through the offer of a special bargain, and again through a story or an interesting current event. You will find examples of the last named in magazines and newspapers. Whatever the device, you must be original — you must say things in a different way. For example, do not say: "We have a good school paper. You had better subscribe."

This is true enough, but it does not attract attention. Compare it with the following and note the difference :

“If you could have all the news of your school printed and laid on your desk each month, would you be willing to pay fifty cents a term for it? *The Junior Herald* will do just this.”

“*The Junior Herald* has more than six hundred subscribers. Let us add your name to our subscription list.”

Having secured attention, you must pass to the task of developing interest. This can best be done usually through description and explanation. If you would interest a customer in an article or a proposition, you must describe or explain it from his point of view — the *you* point of view. Ask the questions: What will he like? What will he want? Appeal to his desire for gain or comfort. Do not attempt to give all the many details that suggest themselves, but only the distinguishing ones. Stress the superior qualities of the article.

It is, however, not enough to interest the customer. He must be made to desire the thing you are selling. In order to create desire, you must show that the article will mean gain or profit or will save his time, strength, or energy. Or you may appeal to your customer's love of comfort or amusement. To accomplish your purpose, whatever your method, make your description contain as much action as possible. Picture the customer using the article. Let him see himself comfortably sitting in his room reading the school paper, or if you are selling a Victrola, have him imagine the scene of his family gathered around the instrument to listen to the music.

But desire may not necessarily produce action. You must also convince the customer. To do this you must offer proof, or rather evidence. By evidence we mean testimonials from reliable authorities, tests of the goods, facts, and figures. In presenting these you must be definite, not vague and general. For example, do not say: “*The Junior Herald* is absolutely and positively the best school paper published.” This sounds interesting, but it is not convincing.

It may even be necessary to use persuasion — just a sentence or two, perhaps. For example, you may say: “Will you not join the large number of satisfied subscribers?” or “Can you afford to be without the news of our athletic games and all the other school activities?” Sometimes also a special inducement should be offered — for example, “For the remainder of the term, you may have *The Junior Herald* at the remarkably low price of thirty-five cents.”

Talk to the English Club. Prepare a two-minute talk in which you seek to secure a new subscriber for your school paper or magazine. Follow the suggestions given in the foregoing discussion of the successful sales talk. Should it be necessary to sell some other article, you can make use of the same general principles. Choose some one of your classmates to act as customer.

Essential Qualities of a Sales Letter. The sales letter should be constructed on much the same plan as the sales talk. The opening paragraph should be designed to secure attention, and the next one should present description or explanation to develop interest and desire. Then should come proof, or

evidence, to convince the customer, and finally persuasion and inducement. This order, however, may be varied, and indeed it is sometimes desirable to change it. For example, a statement of proof may be put first to gain attention.

The following outline and corresponding table of effects on the customer may be helpful :

<i>The Sales Letter</i>	<i>Effect on the Customer</i>
Opening Paragraph	Attention
Description	
Explanation	Interest
Proof, or Evidence	
Persuasion	Desire
Inducement	Action

In constructing a sales letter, always work from an outline, as this will secure unity and coherence. Unity requires that but one subject be treated, and coherence that the important ideas, or paragraphs, be arranged logically. The first step, therefore, is to make an outline. Suppose, for example, you wish to write a letter to assist in the sale of your school paper. You will probably set down your facts in the following manner, guided of course by the foregoing discussion :

1. Opening statement: Most school papers are a good deal like peas in the pod — once you tear off the title, they all look alike.
2. Description and explanation: A statement of the quality of paper used, it may be, and what *The Junior Herald* contains — stories, poems, news of school activities, editorials, jokes, and cartoons.
3. Proof, or evidence: Number of subscribers, what a visitor said about it, etc.
4. Persuasion: Give it a trial. You will find it satisfactory.
5. Inducement: Special offer for the remainder of the term.

The finished letter would probably appear something like this :

THE JUNIOR HERALD

Blank Junior High School
Cleveland, Ohio

January 4, 1925.

Mr. Arlie Smith,
414 West Vine St.,
Cleveland, Ohio.

ATTENTION Dear Sir :

Most school papers are a good deal like peas in the pod — once you tear off the title, they all look alike.

DESCRIPTION But *The Junior Herald* is different. It is printed on the best quality of cream-colored paper and its cover is handsomely designed by the best talent in the art department of the school. It contains an unusually large variety of interesting material — choice stories, poems, the latest news of all the school activities, editorials, club news, jokes, and cartoons.

PROOF Not long ago Mr. Mack visited our school and this is what he said about our paper: "*The Junior Herald* is the *best* school paper I have ever seen." And to prove that he meant what he said, he bought twenty-five copies to take to a class in the home town.

PERSUASION More than six hundred boys and girls are now reading the *Herald*. Will you not add your name to our long list of subscribers?

INDUCEMENT The regular subscription price is fifty cents, but in order that we may count you among our subscribers, you may have it for the remainder of the term for thirty-five cents.

Come to Room 100 and let us enter your name, or write me.

Yours truly,
James Harkness

But the order may be changed somewhat, allowing greater opportunity in many instances for variety. In the following illustration a statement of proof is used to gain attention :

Dear Sir :

Sometime just notice how many pupils are reading *The Junior Herald*. It's really surprising to know just how popular it is.

And there's a reason. It's because it contains so much interesting school news and so many fine stories, poems, editorials, jokes, and cartoons.

Why not give it a trial and let us prove that you cannot afford to be without it?

Just write your name on the inclosed card and hand it to your English teacher or to a reporter of *The Herald*.

Yours truly,
James Harkness

To secure emphasis and make your letter more effective, carefully avoid the following trite or worn-out expressions: *In reply to your letter, we desire to say, enclosed herewith, send sample of same, beg to say, hoping to hear from you, trusting you will favor us with an order, etc.*

Writing a Sales Letter. Write a letter to some pupil who is not a subscriber to your school paper and try to induce him to take it. Follow the suggestions and models given in the foregoing discussion.

Writing an Advertisement. Write an advertisement designed to secure subscribers to the school paper or to sell advertising space in it. An advertisement should be constructed in much the same way as a sales letter. Its big function is to attract attention. This it does chiefly through size of type, color, and pictures. It must interest the average

reader and should, therefore, be written wholly from the *you* point of view. It is needless to say that on account of expense an advertisement should be brief.

Talk to the English Club. Choose another pupil and dramatize a conversation on the telephone. Suppose that the subject is one in connection with the business of the school paper. Give special attention to proper manners and correct English. Use some other subject if you prefer it to the one suggested.

Essential Qualities of an Adjustment Letter. In the transaction of business, difficulties between buyer and seller frequently arise. When the customer is dissatisfied, he writes a letter of complaint. Such letters usually deal with delayed orders, unsatisfactory goods, errors in filling orders, or damages to goods in transit. The answer to a complaint is called an adjustment letter. It must endeavor to satisfy the customer and, if possible, hold his trade. Before writing, find out who is responsible for the trouble. Generally the blame can be traced to the firm, the manufacturer, or the transportation company. Sometimes, however, the customer is at fault. If the fault is with you or your firm, acknowledge it promptly and offer to set matters right. If the manufacturer has furnished defective goods, ask him to replace them or to take them back. Whenever the goods have been delayed in transportation, write the railroad or the express company asking them to send out a tracer. In cases where the customer is to blame, you must use tact and exercise patience. Under no circumstances should you show anger.

The following is an illustration of an adjustment letter such as might be written in answer to a complaint that there was a shortage in the number of school papers delivered to a certain room :

Dear Sir :

We regret to learn that there was a shortage in the number of *Junior Herald*s delivered to your room Tuesday and that five of our subscribers did not receive the paper.

We did not receive our supply from the printer until noon Tuesday. It was therefore necessary for us to count the copies very hastily and send them as speedily as possible to the different rooms. As you no doubt know, our sale in the corridors took most of our time and attention. You can see, therefore, how this mistake probably occurred.

We are sending you five more copies which you will please hand to the boys and girls who were disappointed Tuesday. We assure you that you will not be subjected to similar difficulties again.

Yours truly,

Writing an Adjustment Letter. Suppose that one of your teachers has written you a note complaining that several copies of the school paper delivered to his room were torn and otherwise badly damaged. Write a suitable reply. Follow carefully the suggestions made in the foregoing discussion.

Talk to the English Club. Make a talk to the class, or club, in which you try to sell some article other than the school paper. Study your description and explanation very carefully. Choose one of your classmates to act as customer and give your talk before the class.

Essential Qualities of the Collection Letter. The business man's troubles are not always over when he makes a sale or adjusts a claim, for very

often he must write one or more letters designed to collect what a customer owes him. In many cases a simple statement that the account is due will secure the desired result, but more often a second or even a third letter must be written. These are called collection letters. A letter of this kind is perhaps the most difficult of all to write, because it must not only collect the money but, if possible, hold the customer.

A good collection letter begins in an inoffensive manner, suggests probable cause for the delay, and sometimes offers argument and inducement. It insists on payment and usually closes with an appeal. As in the case of the sales letter, the order may be varied somewhat.

To be able to write such letters as will hold the customer's trade, you must find out as much as possible about him and his business. Always be friendly, avoiding such harsh terms as *dishonest*, *crooked*, *lie*, *false*, etc. Whenever convenient make a positive statement of friendly relations.

The following are illustrations of the simple statement and the collection letter :

Dear Sir :

Enclosed is a statement of your account. This was due on the first of the month, but has evidently escaped your attention.

We shall appreciate a prompt remittance.

Yours truly,

Dear Sir :

For some reason we have not received payment for your subscription to *The Junior Herald*.

Surely the paper has been delivered promptly to you each month or we should have heard from you. You know our policy :

"If anything is not right, we make it right." We are confident you have found this to be true and that your delay is due merely to an oversight. But in justice to us, don't you think you should take pains to see that the delay does not continue any longer?

Don't bother to write us — we understand just how such oversights occur. Simply put your fifty cents in the enclosed envelope and send it to us or hand it to one of our representatives.

Yours truly,

Writing a Collection Letter. Write a letter to a pupil who has neglected to pay for the school paper. Follow the suggestions given in the foregoing discussion. The best letter should be handed to the editor or the business manager. In case you have no school paper, it may be handed to the principal.

II. STATEMENTS FORMALLY INTRODUCED

When statements are formally introduced, they do not really make an interruption in the grammatical structure; but as they are somewhat different from the usual ones, we shall discuss them here. A statement is formally introduced when the writer uses such expressions as *this*, *these*, *for example*, *thus*, *as follows*, and the like. Sometimes the expression thus formally introduced is not an independent statement but an enumeration or explanation. Read carefully the following illustrations:

1. I asked him the *following* questions: What is your name?
Why are you here?
2. There is *this* to be said about him: he knows how to teach his subject.
3. The officer gave the *following* command: "Fire when you see the whites of their eyes."

4. The members of the group are *these*: and, but, for, or, and nor.
5. *Three things* should be mentioned: First, his courage; second, his patience; and third, his ability.

Compare the three sentences that follow:

1. The four great nations at war with Germany were France, Italy, England, and the United States.
2. The four great nations at war with Germany were as follows: France, Italy, England, and the United States.
3. The four great powers at war with Germany were these: France, Italy, England, and the United States.

You will observe that the first of these sentences does not require the use of the colon because the names of the four countries are not formally introduced. It would be a serious mistake to place a colon after the word *were*.

Exercise 1

Punctuate the following sentences:

1. Every pupil should observe these rules Keep to the right walk and do not shove.
2. The general sent the following telegram Be ready to advance on Richmond to-morrow.
3. The three Presidents who have been assassinated were Lincoln Garfield and McKinley.
4. The three Presidents who have been assassinated were the following Lincoln Garfield and McKinley.
5. The following vegetables are needed in every home potatoes turnips and cabbage.
6. The captain's words were these Don't give up the ship.
7. One should place an exclamation point after an exclamatory sentence thus What a noble patriot the boy was!
8. Remember this statement you never can win if you are a coward.
9. The following words are often misspelled separate receive believe and dining.

10. Which of these three writers do you like best Cooper Irving or Bryant?
11. Three great writers were Cooper Irving and Bryant.
12. The senator's decision was this that he would resign his seat and resume the practice of the law.

CHAPTER NINE

I. HOW TO SECURE EMPLOYMENT

It is important that everyone should know how to secure employment. There are some who must work on Saturdays and during the summer vacation. Others must find permanent employment at the end of the junior high-school course. Even those who do not need to leave school now and who do not see the possibility of having to seek employment in the future may nevertheless meet reverses of fortune which will compel them to work for wages. Thus every pupil should profit by a careful study of the positions that are available and the best methods of obtaining them.

PROJECT IX. GETTING A GOOD POSITION

Planning the Work. With the president of the English club or some other member presiding, discuss and formulate plans for the project. The following suggestions, however, may be helpful:

Make a careful study of these topics:

1. Where and how to offer your services
2. The common ways of securing a position

This can best be done through investigations and reports, writing letters of application, dramatizing interviews, etc. The president of the class, or club,

should appoint committees to study and report on the following :

1. Leading firms in your city or community employing boys and girls and the kinds of jobs open — office boy, messenger boy, file clerk, wagon boy, stock clerk, typist, bookkeeper, sales girl, cash girl, box maker, flower maker, etc.
2. Employment agencies in your city or community—the kind of services they render, their charges, etc.
3. Civil Service examinations — where notices are posted, how to get information, positions available, etc.
4. Advertisements — classified advertisements, characteristics of the “Help Wanted” advertisement and the “Situation Wanted” advertisement.

These committees should begin work at once and report within a few days. The information which they collect will be necessary to the successful completion of the project.

Talk to the English Club. Make a short talk to the club, in which you tell the members how you earned your first money. If you prefer, however, you may tell instead which of the following factories or business houses are located in your own neighborhood: box factory, shoe factory, hardware store, department store, tobacco factory, planing mill, foundry, lumber yard, wholesale millinery, patent-medicine factory, chemical plant, motor-manufacturing plant, etc. Tell several interesting facts about any one of them.

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C., asking for the Civil Service Bulletin or other free publications giving information about government positions.

The “Situation Wanted” Advertisement. You may wish to advertise your services in a newspaper, trade journal, or general magazine. If so you should

know the qualities an advertisement must possess in order to secure replies. First, its appearance must be such as to attract the attention of employers. But what is of more importance, it must contain the information necessary to convince them that you are worth considering. In order to accomplish this it must give a good general idea of your qualifications and record. Finally, it must reveal something of your personality, for employers are mindful that this counts for much.

The following shows the construction and style of the usual "Situation Wanted" advertisement:

BOOKKEEPER — Clerical; ambitious, reliable young man; 6 years' experience; can take full charge of small office; operate typewriter; writer of shorthand; A1 references. W 40, Globe-Democrat.

Writing an Advertisement. Choose the position you would like to secure and write an advertisement setting forth your qualifications. Follow the suggestions given in the foregoing discussion.

Talk to the English Club. Secure an interview with some leading business man, preferably a friend of your family, and ask him to give an account of his early experiences in business, his first position, and other interesting facts. Tell the class all about the interview.

Reports of Committees. The chairman of each committee should now report the results of his investigations. Put the most important facts in your English notebook for reference. Perhaps two or three days will be required to complete this part of the work.

Essential Qualities of a Letter of Application. A letter of application is essentially a sales letter, for the applicant seeks to sell his services. As such, it should possess the same qualities — that is, it should attract attention, create interest and desire, convince the prospective employer, and secure action. However, the letter alone is rarely sufficient. More frequently it secures an interview, and this purpose should constantly be kept in mind.

The very first sentence should mean something and ought to be expressed in language free from such stereotyped expressions as “ Seeing your ad. in the *Post* ”, “ Having learned that you have a vacancy ”, etc. Make sure that you write the entire letter from the employer’s point of view. State such facts as will interest him. If you can make him feel that you will do his work better than almost anybody else, that you will save his time, that you will make his day’s labor lighter, and that you can help him to make more money — if you can do all of these, or at least some of them, you should get the position. First, present the record of your education and experience, stressing the parts that will enable you to be most helpful to your prospective employer. Second, give proof of your ability, chiefly through your recommendations and the outstanding points of your experience. If you are applying for your first position, however, you will have to fall back on your education and such general recommendations as you may be able to obtain from your minister or teacher. Inclose copies of any testimonials you may have, carefully keeping the originals for future use. Third, if you are about to change positions, state your reasons for leaving your present employ-

ment. Be careful not to leave the impression that you are unreliable, hard to please, or a drifter. Fourth, carefully avoid mentioning the salary you want unless asked to do so. Lastly, give references who can speak of your experience and character. Always take pains to write correctly their names, official titles, and addresses. Before using their names, secure their permission.

As in the case of the sales letter, you should avoid trite and worn-out expressions. Do not say: *Saw your ad. in the paper, beg to advise, not afraid to work, wish to apply for same, hoping to hear from you, trusting you will give me a chance at it, etc.*

Perhaps no particular letter of application should be given as a model, for every one should be different. It may prove quite helpful, however, to have for reference a typical advertisement for help and an answer to it. Note the following:

YOUNG MAN — Clerical position in large financial concern; an exceptional opportunity for young man between 16 and 18 years of age; in answer, state qualifications and salary expected. B 7, Globe-Democrat.

B 7,
Globe-Democrat,
St. Louis, Mo.

5729 Maple Avenue,
St. Louis, Missouri,
July 5, 1925.

Gentlemen:

Please consider me an applicant for the position of clerk as advertised in Sunday's *Globe*.

I graduated June 17 from the Blewett Junior High School, where I did a year's work in typewriting, commercial arithmetic, and business English. My grades average *G* for the two and one-half years during which I was enrolled.

During my summer vacation last year I was in the employ of the Mississippi Valley Trust Company, where I had experience that should be helpful to me in a position such as you advertise.

I am willing to begin work at fifteen dollars a week, though I hope to prove that I am worth more than that to you in the course of a few months.

By permission I offer the following references: Mr. H. H. Ryan, Principal of the Blewett Junior High School, 450 Fairview Avenue, Webster Groves, Missouri; Mr. J. T. Steinwender, Assistant Cashier, Mississippi Valley Trust Company, St. Louis, Missouri.

If my qualifications interest you, I shall be glad of an interview at your convenience.

Yours truly,

Writing a Letter of Application. Write a letter applying for a position as advertised in the daily papers of your city or community. Select preferably a blind "ad.", such as the example given above — that is, one that does not reveal the employer's name. Try to obtain an interview. Follow the suggestions given in the foregoing discussion, but make your work as interesting and original as possible.

Dramatizing an Interview. Assuming that through your letter of application you have secured an interview, carefully prepare the facts you wish to present to your prospective employer. Remember that neatness in appearance, good manners, and correct English help to make a favorable impression. Select one of your classmates to act as employer and give the interview before the club.

Writing a Letter. Think of a large firm in your city or community with whom you would like to obtain employment. Find out what you can of the positions that might be open to you and if possible learn a great deal about your prospective employer.

When you have done this, write a letter of application designed to attract special attention.

Talk to the English Club. Choose a classmate to act as employer and suppose that you are holding a telephone conversation concerning a position which you wish to secure. Give special attention to the opening, clear and distinct enunciation, good manners, and convincing facts. Dramatize the conversation before the class, or club.

II. USE OF UNNECESSARY WORDS

A sentence that contains unnecessary words or needless repetitions is greatly weakened. You should learn to discover such expressions, and then endeavor to omit them. The following examples cover the more serious errors of this kind :

Unnecessary Prepositions. Notice the use of the prepositions in the following sentences :

1. Where is your coat *at* ?
2. Why did you do it *for* ?
3. The water stood at a depth of *from* five to seven feet.
4. What is it made *out* of ?
5. Henry stood *in back of* the hedge fence. (behind)

Notice that these sentences gain much in effectiveness when the unnecessary words are omitted — thus :

1. Where is your coat ?
2. Why did you do it ?
3. The water stood at a depth of five to seven feet.
4. What is it made of ?
5. Henry stood behind the hedge fence.

Words Repeated. Sometimes words are repeated when pronouns or synonyms could be used. Find the words repeated in these sentences.

1. I am sending you my *theme* by mail, and I hope you will think the *theme* is very interesting.
2. My *work* is not so interesting as I had hoped it would be, but do not infer that I am going to give up my *work*.

Notice the improvement of these sentences when they are re-stated :

1. I am sending you my theme by mail, and I hope you will think it is very interesting.
2. My work is not so interesting as I had hoped it would be, but do not infer that I am going to give it up.

Repetition of the Idea. Sometimes words repeat the same idea — thus :

1. The children were all assembled *together*.
2. *Numerous* trees were *abundant* in the park.
3. Let everyone stand *up*.
4. The problem is *a* difficult *one*.
5. Many parallel ridges ran *side by side*.

When these sentences are re-stated, the gain in effect is evident.

1. The children were assembled.
2. Trees were numerous in the park.
3. Let everyone stand.
4. The problem is difficult.
5. There were many parallel ridges.

Repetition of Favorite Words. Many pupils fall into the habit of using favorite words or phrases in sentences when they are entirely unnecessary or meaningless. Such expressions include “ nine times out of ten ”, “ in most cases ”, “ in the great major-

ity of cases ", " in many instances ", " as it were ", " condition ", " purpose ", and " character. "

1. *Nine times out of ten* the coal mines are usually very deep.
2. In the *case of* our class there were many failures.
3. Illinois has a great deal of coal for fuel *purposes*.
4. The *character* of the water is very impure.

Notice the improvement that comes from re-stating these sentences :

1. The coal mines are usually very deep.
2. In our class there were many failures.
3. Illinois has a great deal of coal for fuel.
4. The water is very impure.

Exercise 1

Re-state the following sentences leaving out unnecessary or incorrect words :

1. When the boys had collected all the paper together, they set fire to it.
2. Various different ways of paying the debt were suggested.
3. We did not know where we were at till noon.
4. This sentence is a difficult one.
5. Throughout the entire day I was detained by the officer.
6. The newsboy tried hard to sell his papers, but he could not sell a single paper.
7. Sit down and wait for the manager.
8. That there plan was advocated by the mayor.
9. I always wash my hands every morning.
10. John he brought me a valuable present.
11. The child crept in back of the curtain.
12. In some places we found a shell here and there.
13. A great big black dog came running toward us.
14. Why did the president do that for?
15. In most cases well-built houses stand for many years.
16. The wind generally always blows from the west.
17. Numerous stones were found in abundance on the hillsides.
18. Every man objected to this here plan.

CHAPTER TEN

I. A READING CLUB

Aside from your study of the classics, you should read a number of good books and magazines. This will add greatly to your appreciation of literature and increase your power of expression. It will also enlarge your experience and broaden the scope of your general knowledge. In fact, there is no other line of work that will yield so rich a return.

But it is very important that you should find out what books are most worth while, that you should report on your reading so as to interest others, and that you receive certain credits or awards for your work. The most direct method of accomplishing these things is through the simple project of a reading club.

PROJECT X. CONDUCTING A READING CLUB

Planning the Work. Although you already have a class organization, you will find it interesting to form a reading club with different officers. You will need at least two, a president and a librarian. The president should, of course, preside at all meetings of the club, and the librarian should have charge of the book list and keep a record of all work done by the pupils. In order to encourage greater effort, the club should plan to give a certificate or a button

to each member who reads as many as five books. Committees should be appointed to find out and recommend suitable books and magazines to be added to the book list.

The following is a list of books suitable for pupils of the ninth grade. If any of them have already been read by a majority, they may be omitted. Other titles suggested by your committees or by the teacher should be added :

The Promised Land — Antin
The Little Minister — Barrie
The Story of the Canterbury Pilgrims — Bates
Pilgrim's Progress — Bunyan
Those Dale Girls — Caruth
The Crisis — Churchill
The Last of the Mohicans — Cooper
The Spy — Cooper
Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountain — Craddock
Two Years before the Mast — Dana
Old Chester Tales — Deland
Oliver Twist — Dickens
The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes — Doyle
The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come — Fox
Readings from English History — Green
Adrift on an Ice Pan — Grenfell
Barbara's Heritage — Hoyt
The Sketch Book — Irving
Story of My Life — Keller
Westward Ho ! — Kingsley
Captains Courageous — Kipling
Colonel Carter of Cartersville — Page
The Oregon Trail — Parkman
Short Stories — Poe
Freckles — Porter
Guy Mannering — Scott
Kenilworth — Scott
Treasure Island — Stevenson
The Black Arrow — Stevenson

Jolly Fellowship — Stockton
 Uncle Tom's Cabin — Stowe
 The Turmoil — Tarkington
 Wild Animals I Have Known — Thompson-Seton
 Ben Hur — Wallace
 Mr. Britling Sees It Through — Wells

Talk to the Library Club. Make a short talk in which you tell the club something about an interesting book you have read recently. To assist your classmates, offer any advice you can about the selection of a good book to read. Would you advise them to read the book on which you are reporting? Why?

Writing a Letter. Write a letter to the librarian of the public library telling him about your reading club and explaining the purpose for which it was formed. Ask him to send you a list of books suitable for the ninth grade. The best letter should be mailed.

Talk to the Library Club. In a short talk to the club explain how to use one of the following:

The card index
 The Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature
 An encyclopedia

Reports of Committees. Committees should now report titles of books which they can recommend, and the club should make up a permanent reading list. No book should be added, however, without the consent of the teacher. When the list is complete, copy it in your notebook.

Talk to the Library Club. You should now be ready to give your reports on the books you have

been reading. This will probably require several days. The work may, however, be expedited somewhat by having the club resolve itself into four or five groups, each of which should be in charge of a chairman appointed by the librarian. The members of each group can report to their chairman. This plan does not always arouse the degree of interest that results from reports to the entire club.

Do not undertake to tell the whole story in detail, but what interested you most. Perhaps you will prefer to tell how the story opens and ends, or you may choose to follow the plan of book reviews found in newspapers and magazines. Your controlling purpose should be to advise and assist your classmates in choosing the books they are to read.

Dramatizing an Interesting Scene. Select an interesting scene from a book you have read, and dramatize it. Write the language of each speaker with care, making it always appropriate and natural. Choose as many pupils as there are characters needed and ask them to assist you in reading and acting the different parts. The best work should be determined by vote of the club and presented later at a final program, before another class, or at an assembly session.

Giving a Program. From the best work done in this project, choose several articles suitable for a program. Write a letter to the librarian asking him to send a representative to give a talk on some subject of interest in connection with the reading of books or the use of the library. If possible, secure two or three musical numbers. Invite another class and give your program.

II. MISCELLANEOUS

Words Omitted. You have been studying sentences containing unnecessary words. You will now learn that it is also incorrect to omit words that are necessary to the construction of the sentence. It often happens that we omit a part of a verb phrase — thus :

1. The collection was for the Red Cross.
2. The fruit is from Missouri.
3. The excursion is for Sunday.

Let us now write these sentences with the verb phrases in full :

1. The collection *was taken* for the Red Cross.
2. The fruit *is obtained* from Missouri.
3. The excursion *is advertised* for Sunday.

Sometimes an infinitive is omitted after certain words — such as *want*. We have called attention to this in a previous lesson.

1. I want off at Clara avenue.
2. The officer would not let me out.
3. Marner let the child in.

Notice the gain in effectiveness when these sentences are written correctly :

1. I want *to get* off at Clara avenue.
2. The officer would not let me *go* out.
3. Marner let the child *come* in.

Sometimes a pronoun subject or a relative pronoun and its predicate verb are omitted. This error should be carefully avoided. Note the omissions in the following sentences :

1. It was John did it.
2. The plan was devised by the mayor assisted by a prominent alderman.

These should be rewritten as follows :

1. It was John *who* did it.
2. The plan was devised by the mayor, *who was* assisted by a prominent alderman.

Exercise 1

Improve the following sentences by supplying words that should not be omitted :

1. The passenger wants off at the next station.
2. It was despair drove him to commit the crime.
3. His work was merely for promotion.
4. Mary would not let the bird out of the cage.
5. I am to be chairman of the meeting.
6. The cat wants in.
7. Charles lives near where I visit every summer.

Changes of Construction. A sentence often contains more than one clause. When this is the case the subject should not needlessly be changed. Also the verb of one clause should not be in the active voice and that of the other in the passive. These errors are illustrated by the following sentences.

1. Many policemen hurried to the scene of the fire, and a guard was formed around the building.
2. There the river becomes narrow and many beautiful curves are made.

If we rewrite these sentences, keeping the same subject and the same voice of the verbs, we gain much — thus :

1. Many policemen hurried to the scene of the fire and formed a guard around the building.
2. The river becomes narrow and makes many beautiful curves.

Careless Statement of Definition. Do not use the expressions “is when” and “is where” in definitions — thus :

1. An angle is where two straight lines meet.
2. The initiative is when you petition a legislative body to pass a law.

These definitions should be stated more accurately :

1. An angle is the degree of opening between two straight lines that meet.
2. The initiative is a provision by means of which the people may petition for the enactment of a law.

Compounds Often Incorrectly Written. The following shows how some common compound forms should be written :

anybody	any one	anyhow	everywhere
everybody	everyone	anything	somewhat
nobody	none	anyway	sometimes
somebody	some one	any place	something

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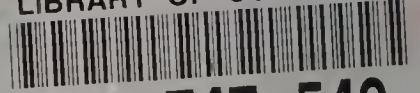
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